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ABSTRACT

Papers presented in the proceedings discuss: business communication skills; job searching; technology; effective oral communication skills; ethics; and innovative instruction in business communication classes. Papers are: "Communication Skills in Employment Ads of Major United States Newspapers" (M. Casady and F. S. Wayne); "A Collegiate Model for Identifying Desired Workplace Basics and Developing Appropriate Curriculum" (N. B. Erickson); "A Career Development Model for Integrating Report Writing, Job Search, and Application Papers" (H. Turner and B. Chaney); "College Students' Perceptions of What Should Be Included in a Resume" (J. D. Rucker and J. A. Sellers); "Handwriting: A Hidden Employment Criterion" (T. D. Roach and S. Bevill); "The Faculty Desktop: An Analysis of Current Communication Parameters" (M. L. Bayless and B. S. Johnson); "Technological Tools Used by Communication Professionals" (D. A. Goings and others); "The United States and Latin America: A Comparison of Selected Cultural Dimensions in the Business Environment and the Effect of Communication" (S. S. Benoit and B. A. Kleen); "Format and Focus of Intercultural Communication Training Provided by Selected U.S. International Firms" (R. H. Krapels and L. H. Chaney); "Communicating across the Borders" (J. C. Nixon and J. F. West); "Regional Differences and Business Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Verbal and Nonverbal Communication Skills Needed for Business Success" (M. E. Bradshaw and L. H. Chaney); "Demographic and Trait-Related Correlates of Public Speaking Anxiety" (M. E. Murray and D. D. DuFrene); "Distracting Speaker's Actions and Habits" (T. W. Clipson and M. C. Young); "Informal Communications: Opening the Window" (C. D. Ramser); "Improving Word Originating Skills in the Computerized Office: A Specialized Communication Course for Administrative Support Personnel and Their Managers" (L. W. Lee and G. T. Pearce); "Compensation and Contributing Compensation Factors of Business Communication Faculty" (B. H. Nelson and D. W. Luse); "The Status of Ethics Instruction in AACSB Accredited Colleges of Business" (D. E. English and others); "Where Should We Go from Here?" (N. L. Reinsch); "Vital Communication Tools in Businesses" (N. Spinks and others); "'If the Shoe Fits...'" (R. N. Conaway); "Voice Recognition Systems" (M. P. Shane Joyce); "Communication Skills Needed for Employee Success during the First Five Years of Employment" (L. A. Krajewski and S. A. Wood); "Two Business Advisory Boards Using GDSS Determine Communication Is the Number One Need of Business Graduates" (J. S. Martin and M. Aiken); and "Planning for Total Quality Banking Services through Assessment of Leadership, Communication, and Customer Satisfaction" (M. L. Tucker and W. P. Galle, Jr.). (RS)

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ASSOCIATION FOR BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

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Communication Skills in Employment Ads of Major United States Newspapers
Mona Casady and F. Stanford Wayne

A Collegiate Model for Identifying Desired Workplace Basics and Developing Appropriate Curriculum
Nan B. Erickson

A Career Development Model for Integrating Report Writing, Job Search, and Application Papers
Hilda Turner and Becky Chaney

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Mary L. Tucker and William P. Galle, Jr.

1993 REFEREED PROCEEDINGS

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ASSOCIATION FOR BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

SOUTHWEST REGION

1993 Refereed Proceedings

Timothy W. Clipson, Editor
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Post Office Box 13060
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PREFACE

The 1993 meeting of the Southwest Region of the Association for Business Communication demonstrated a continued commitment of our membership to quality theoretical and practical research.

F. Stanford Wayne did an excellent job developing a program which our membership could profit. The long hours of work he devoted to insuring the 1993 program was successful produced an outstanding and timely program. His hard work and dedication is a valued asset to ABC. Thank you, Stan!

The program consisted of 78 program participants, 39 papers, 10 chairpersons presiding over 10 sessions. Two joint sessions were held. One with the Academy of Management and one with the Marketing Association. The 39 papers were chosen from 45 (21 papers and 28 abstracts) submitted for blind review. Of the 39 papers presented, 24 were selected and included in this publication.

Articles in this Proceedings are presented in order of presentation at New Orleans. A copy of the conference program is included. The 1993 Richard D. Irwin Distinguished Paper award was presented to Mona J. Cassady and F. Stanford Wayne for their paper: *An Analysis of Communication Skills in Employment Ads of Major United States Newspapers.*

A list of previous program chairpersons and distinguished paper award recipients is included as well as the recipients of the Outstanding Researcher and Outstanding Teacher Award.

Ronald L. Smith of LIFE, Inc. designed the logo, the cover, and the title pages. Thank you Ron for the talent and time you have continued to contribute to create a professional image for the Proceedings for the last five years.

Finally, as I will be passing the baton of Editor to my capable colleague, Marsha Bayless, I wish to thank each member of ABC-SW for making my five years as editor enjoyable and rewarding. My work with you has provided the opportunity to get to know you better and I look forward to many more years of professional camaraderie.

I also wish to thank the faculty and staff in the School of Business at Stephen F. Austin State University for continuing to provide the climate and support to help me reach the goal of providing you a quality Proceedings.

ASSOCIATION FOR BUSINESS COMMUNICATION — SOUTHWEST

REVIEWERS

Much time and effort were dedicated to reviewing papers submitted for presentation at the Southwest Region meeting. Articles in this Proceedings were selected and included by the process of a blind review. For a paper to be accepted for publication it must have been approved by the reviewers, presented during the 1991 meeting in Houston, TX, and resubmitted to the Proceedings' editor for final review following presentation.

To the following who served as reviewers, **thank you**!

Arnold, Vanessa	University of Mississippi
Benoit, Sallye	Nicholls State University
Casady, Mona J.	Southwest Missouri State University
Clipson, Timothy	Stephen F. Austin State University
Conaway, Roger	University of Texas at Tyler
Dugger, Patty	David Lipscomb University
English, Donald E.	East Texas State University
Forbes, Cassie L.	University of Montevallo
Gray, Fay Beth	Arkansas State University
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Rainey, Carolyn	Southeast Missouri State University
Roach, Terry	Arkansas State University
Spinks, Nelda	University of Southwestern Louisiana
Trexler, Anna R.	Southern Arkansas University
Tucker, Mary L.	Nicholls State University
Turner, Hilda	Arkansas Tech University
Wardrope, William	University of Central Oklahoma

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1993–94	Donna Luse

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Association for Business Communication
Southwest Region

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Proceedings Editor:	**Timothy W. Clipson**, Stephen F. Austin State University

Thursday, March 4

8:00 a.m.-8:30 a.m. (Thursday) **Rosella**

ABC—SOUTHWEST COFFEE\TEA\ROLLS

8:30 a.m.-9:00 a.m. (Thursday) **Rosella**

OPENING SESSION

Presiding: **Beverly H. Nelson**, University of New Orleans

Welcome: **Marlin C. Young**, Vice President, Southwest Region, Stephen F. Austin State University

Remarks: **John D. Pettit, Jr.**, Executive Director, ABC, University of North Texas

9:00 a.m.-10:15 a.m. (Thursday) **Rosella**

USING BUSINESS COMMUNICATION SKILLS FOR A SUCCESSFUL JOB SEARCH

Chairperson: **William Sharbrough**, The Citadel

Communication Skills in Employment Ads of Major United States Newspapers
Mona J. Casady, Southwest Missouri State University
F. Stanford Wayne, Southwest Missouri State University

A Collegiate Model for Identifying Desired Workplace Basics and Developing Appropriate Curriculum
Nan B. Erickson, University of Missouri, Columbia

A Career Development Model for Integrating Report Writing, Job Research, and Application Papers
Becky Chaney, University of Arkansas
Hilda Turner, Arkansas Tech University

College Students' Perceptions of What Should Be Included in a Resume
Jim Rucker, Fort Hays State University
Jean Anna Sellers, Fort Hays State University

10:00 a.m.-10:30 a.m. (Thursday) **Pontchartrain Ballroom**

SWFAD COFFEE BREAK

10:30 a.m.-12 noon (Thursday) **Rosella**

IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Chairperson: **Minoo Amini,** University of Southern Mississippi

Handwriting: A Hidden Employment Criterion
Terry D. Roach, Arkansas State University
Sandra Bevill, Arkansas State University

Proofreading and Editing Skills—Implications for Business Communication
Myrena Jennings, Eastern Kentucky University
Janna Vice, Eastern Kentucky University

How Effective Is the Incidental Approach in Improving a Key Component of Written Communication?
Mona J. Casady, Southwest Missouri State University
Duane R. Moses, Southwest Missouri State University

Interpreting Data: Message-Making, Social Orientation, and Originality
Mary Sue Garay, Louisiana State University

1:15 p.m.-2:45 p.m. (Thursday) **Rosella**

SESSION A: JOINT SESSION WITH MANAGEMENT: USING TECHNOLOGY TO ENHANCE COMMUNICATION FOR MANAGERS AND EDUCATORS

Chairperson: **R. David Ramsey,** Southeastern Louisiana University

Teleconferencing and its Effects: A Selected Review of Current Literature
William E. Worth, Georgia State University
Alexa Bryans North, Georgia State University

Overlooking the Obvious: The Need for Communication in a Communication Project
Jim A. Wilterding, Boise State University
Roger D. Roderick, California State University, Long Beach

The Effectiveness of Workgroup MIS for Communications
Minoo S. Amini, University of Southern Mississippi

The Faculty Desktop: An Analysis of Current Communication Parameters
Marsha L. Bayless, Stephen F. Austin State University
Betty S. Johnson, Stephen F. Austin State University

1:30 p.m.-3:00 p.m. (Thursday) **Oakley**

SESSION B: **JOINT SESSION WITH MARKETING: USING TECHNOLOGY TO ENHANCE COMMUNICATION FOR EDUCATION AND PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS**

Chairperson: **Duane R. Moses,** Southwest Missouri State University

The Design of Expert Systems Projects for Undergraduate Students
Elaine McGivern, Bucknell University

Technological Tools Used by Communication Professionals
Douglas A. Goings, The University of Southwestern Louisiana
Dianne W. Ross, The University of Southwestern Louisiana
Al Williams, The University of Southwestern Louisiana

Computer Fluency: Are Marketing Students Prepared?
James H. Wilkins, The University of Southwestern Louisiana
Larry E. Scheuermann, The University of Southwestern Louisiana

An Analysis of the Components of Selected Interactive Electronic Mailing Lists
Rita Thomas Noel, Western Carolina University

3:00 p.m.-3:30 p.m. (Thursday) **Pontchartrain Ballroom**

SWFAD COFFEE BREAK

3:15 p.m.-4:45 p.m. (Thursday) **Rosella**

FOCUSING ON INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Chairperson: **Bobbye J. Davis,** Southeastern Louisiana University

The United States and Latin America: A Comparison of Selected Cultural Dimensions in the Business Environments and the Effect on Communication
Sallye S. Benoit, Nicholls State University
Betty A. Kleen, Nicholls State University

Format and Focus of Intercultural Communication Training Provided for U. S. Expatriate Managers
Roberta H. Krapels, Memphis State University
Lillian H. Chaney, Memphis State University

A Perception of Communication Styles as Reflected in the Marketing Practices of a Small Developing Country
Etta M. Jones, University of Houston, Downtown

Communicating Across the Borders
Judy C. Nixon, The University of Tennessee, Chattanooga
Judy F. West, The University of Tennessee, Chattanooga

Friday, March 5

8:30 a.m.-10:00 a.m. (Friday) **Rosella**

INSTILLING EFFECTIVE ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Chairperson: **H. D. Drennan**, Middle Tennessee State University

Regional Differences in Business Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Verbal and Nonverbal Communication Skills Needed for Business
Martha E. Bradshaw, Southeastern Louisiana University
Lillian H. Chaney, Memphis State University

A Competency Model for Listening
H. Dan O'Hair, Texas Tech University
Mary John O'Hair, Texas Tech University
Paula Sorenson, Texas Tech University

An Experimental Study on the Teaching of Listening in a Business Communication Course
Thomas L. Means, Louisiana Tech University

Demographic and Trait-Related Correlates of Public Speaking Anxiety
Mary Ellen Murray, Stephen F. Austin State University
Debbie DuFrene, Stephen F. Austin State University

Distracting Speakers' Actions and Habits
Marlin C. Young, Stephen F. Austin State University
Timothy W. Clipson, Stephen F. Austin State University

10:00 a.m.-10:30 a.m. (Friday) **Pontchartrain Ballroom**

SWFAD COFFEE BREAK

10:15 a.m.-11:45 a.m. (Friday) **Rosella**

DISCUSSING CURRENT AND FUTURE COMMUNICATION ISSUES

Chairperson: **Bernadine Chube-Jenkins**, Southern University

Changing to Communicate Effectively in the 21st Century
Fay Beth Gray, Arkansas State University

Informal Communication: Opening the Windows
Charles D. Ramser, Midwestern State University

Gender Communication Differences in the Office Environment
Rebecca J. Loftis, University of Central Arkansas
Nina Goza, University of Central Arkansas

Improving Word Originating Skills in the Computerized Office
La Juana W. Lee, McNeese State University
Gayle T. Pearce, McNeese State University

Compensation and Contributing Compensation Factors of Business Communication Faculty
Donna W. Luse, Northeast Louisiana University
Beverly H. Nelson, University of New Orleans

1:00 p.m.-1:45 p.m. (Friday) **Oakley**

BUSINESS MEETING

Presiding: **F. Stanford Wayne**, Vice President/Program Chair/President Elect, ABC—Southwest, Southwest Missouri State University

All Registered Members Are Encouraged to Attend

1:45 p.m.-3:15 p.m. (Friday) **Rosella**

INTEGRATING ETHICS INTO BUSINESS COMMUNICATION CURRICULUM

Chairperson: **Michael S. Hanna**, University of South Alabama

The Status of Ethics Instruction in the Undergraduate Business Curriculum at AACSB Accredited Colleges of Business: The Final Report
Donald E. English, East Texas State University
E. J. Manton, East Texas State University
Tina Minter, East Texas State University

An Ethical Decision-Making Communication Process Model
Judy F. West, The University of Tennessee, Chattanooga
Judy C. Nixon, The University of Tennessee, Chattanooga
Thomas A. Gavin, The University of Tennessee, Chattanooga

Business Ethics: A Classroom Priority?
Allayne B. Pizzolatto, Nicholls State University
Sandra Bevill, Arkansas State University

Where Should We Go from Here? Some Research Questions for Business Communication Ethics
N. L. Reinsch, Jr., Georgetown University

3:00 p.m.-3:30 p.m. (Friday) **Pontchartrain Ballroom**

SWFAD COFFEE BREAK

Association for Business Communication
Southwest Region

3:30 p.m.-5:00 p.m. (Friday) **Rosella**

SESSION A: IMPLEMENTING INNOVATIVE INSTRUCTION IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION CLASSES

Chairperson: **Randy E. Cone**, University of New Orleans

Improving Teaching Effectiveness in Business Communication Through Implementation of Learning Style Information
Jennie Hunter, Western Carolina University

Business Student Internship Programs: Vital Communication Tools in Businesses
Nelda Spinks, The University of Southwestern Louisiana
Barron Wells, The University of Southwestern Louisiana
Jan Duggar, The University of Southwestern Louisiana
Bret Mellington, The Greater Lafayette Chamber of Commerce

"If the Shoe Fits. . ." A Case Study Examining the Communication Audit as a Pedagogical Tool
Roger N. Conaway, University of Texas, Tyler

Voice Recognition Systems: Status and Implications for Teaching Business Communications
Marguerite P. Shane Joyce, California State University, Los Angeles

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3:30 p.m.-5:00 p.m. (Friday) **Oakley**

SESSION B: DETERMINING EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Chairperson: **Jane H. Stanford**, Texas A&I University

Communication Skills Needed by College Graduates During Their First Five Years of Employment
Lorraine A. Krajewski, Louisiana State University, Shreveport
Susan A. Wood, Louisiana State University, Shreveport

Facilitating Transferrable Skills in Business Communication Contexts
H. Dan O'Hair, Texas Tech University
Karl J. Krayer, Dr. Pepper/Seven-Up Companies, Inc.
Mary John O'Hair, Texas Tech University

Two Business Advisory Boards Using GDSS Determine Communication is the Number One Need of Business Graduates
Jeanette S. Martin, University of Mississippi
Milam W. Aiken, University of Mississippi

Planning for Total Quality Banking Services Through Assessment of Leadership, Communication, and Customer Satisfaction: A Partial Internal Communication Audit
Mary L. Tucker, Nicholls State University
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COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN EMPLOYMENT ADS OF MAJOR UNITED STATES NEWSPAPERS

Mona Casady, Southwest Missouri State University
F. Stanford Wayne, Southwest Missouri State University

ABSTRACT

The authors selected 20 newspapers based on geographic location and circulation rates. Five major newspapers were selected from identifiable regions of the United States. All employment ads were reviewed from these newspapers three times during the year.

The analyses of the data include: (1) the total number of ads for each newspaper as well as the number and percentage of ads that specify communication skills, (2) the total ads for each geographic region as well as the number and percentage of ads that specify communication skills, (3) a comparison of communication skills at each of the three time intervals (February, May, and September), (4) a summary of specific communication skills for each newspaper and region as well as for the nation, and (5) a summary of job categories that require communication skills.

PURPOSE OF THE CURRENT STUDY

Communication skills are becoming increasingly important in a variety of occupations. Numerous studies have identified this importance (e.g., U.S. Department of Labor, 1989; DiSalvo and Steere, 1980; Hahn, 1982; Hildebrandt, 1982; Swenson, 1980; Wilmington, 1989; Wolvin, 1984; and Wayne et al., 1992) and specified the communication skills that employers would like their employees to have in order to enhance job success.

However, knowing what communication skills are actually requested in the employment ads for various positions would be of further value. One would then be able to compare what employers <u>say</u> they want from employees in terms of communication skills with skills that are <u>required and documented</u> in the newspaper.

METHODOLOGY

The researchers first divided the United States into four geographic regions: North Central, South Central, Eastern, and Western. Based on high circulation figures cited by Editor & Publisher (Fitzgerald, 1990), five newspapers were identified in each region; they include 15 of the top 25 Sunday newspapers.

The help-wanted ads were reviewed in the Sunday editions of these newspapers during the year 1991. Arrangements were made with various libraries to obtain the ads for the second Sunday in the months of February (after holiday rush and year-end reports), May (near spring commencement), and September (after summer commencement). Thus, the help-wanted ads in 60 Sunday newspapers, nationwide, were reviewed.

The positions and skills were not preconceived. They were recorded word-for-word as they appeared in the ads. After positions and skills were recorded for two or three issues of each newspaper, the same wording (with some exceptions) continued to appear. To facilitate data collection, a master form was developed so positions mentioning communication skills could be easily recorded with corresponding checkmarks for specified communication skills. The forms accommodated the addition of "other" positions and communication skills as they appeared.

For each newspaper, the total number of ads mentioning the desire for communication skills was calculated. Also, the total number of ads in each paper was obtained so a comparison of total ads to ads requesting communication skills could be made. Then, the regional totals for numbers of ads and numbers of ads requesting communication skills were calculated. Next, totals were obtained for how many times each specified communication skill was mentioned in each paper and collectively by region.

Finally, two- or three-letter codes were developed for all recorded positions, and two-letter codes were developed for identified communication skills. For example, **AC** identified the position as accounting related; **IP** identified the skill as interpersonal. These codes were then handwritten on the recorded forms containing the positions and checked skills. Each position was entered into the computer using WordPerfect 5.1; the communication skill codes were entered next to each position requesting those skills.

The WordPerfect sort feature was used to alphabetize the positions with corresponding skills that appeared in each newspaper. Then the number of ads that appeared in each newspaper for specific occupations and the number of times particular communica-

tion skills were requested for these occupations were totaled. A similar procedure was used to obtain totals by region.

FINDINGS

Major findings fall under three categories--(1) the percent of ads that request communication skills, (2) the communication skills sought by employers, and (3) the job categories that require communication skills.

Percent of Ads that Request Communication Skills

Of the 105,834 employment ads reviewed, 10,797 or 10.2 percent require communication skills. No large differences exist among the regions.

One comparison of newspapers within each region identifies the newspapers that have the highest percentage of communication ads to total ads: Eastern--New York Times, 29.83 percent (i.e., of 848 total ads, 253 required communication skills); North Central--Chicago Tribune, 11.09 percent; South Central--Kansas City Star, 8.24 percent; and Western--San Francisco Examiner & Chronicle, 15.75 percent.

Another comparison of newspapers within each region was made to identify newspapers that have the largest number of ads requiring communication skills: Eastern--Washington Post, 1,334 (i.e., which is 46.45% of the region's 2,872 total communication ads); North Central--Chicago Tribune, 1,134; South Central--Kansas City Star, 473; and Western--Los Angeles Times, 1,169. Overall, the newspaper with the largest number of ads requesting communication skills (1,334) was the Washington Post. The smallest number (85) was in the Houston Chronicle.

The region with the largest percentage of employment ads requesting communication skills (12.87 percent) was the Eastern Region; the region with the smallest percentage of communication ads (7.33 percent) was the South-Central Region. Of all the newspapers reviewed, the New York Times had the highest percentage (29.83 percent) of communication ads compared to total ads. The Omaha World Herald had the lowest percentage (6.13 percent).

Although no real differences existed in the percentage of communication ads for the three time periods studied, three observations can be made:

- Communication ads were lowest in February newspapers (9.73 percent).

- The largest percentage of communication ads occurred during September (10.6 percent).

- The percentage of communication ads to total ads steadily increased during the year.

Communication Skills Sought By Employers

The communication skills sought by employers were classified as general or specific skills.

General Skills. The general skills mentioned in the ads were communication skills, interpersonal skills, oral/verbal and written skills, presentation skills, and writing skills. The specific skills requested were graphics, grant writing, press releases, product announcements, report writing, technical documentation/writing, telephone communication, negotiation, dictation, and international. (Characteristics or skills that were not tabulated as communication skills for the purpose of this research included leadership, enthusiasm, supervision, analyzing, selling, and organization.)

The largest category of general skills was "communication skills" (5,024 ads). In second and third places, respectively, were "interpersonal skills" (2,651 ads) and "oral/verbal and written communication skills" (1,790 ads).

Of the specific skills requested by employers, the overwhelming largest category was telephone skills (1,548 ads). In second place, though significantly less, was report writing skills (272 ads). The third and fourth place categories were nearly tied: technical documentation/writing (254 ads) and international (251 ads).

Job Categories that Require Communication Skills

The employment ads requiring communication skills were categorized by 31 job categories plus "other" (jobs listed ten or fewer times), as shown in Table 1. The job category with the highest number of ads requiring communication skills of any kind was "administrative assistant/secretarial services." Included in this category were receptionists, legal and paralegal assistants/secretaries, medical records assistants/secretaries, typists and word processing specialists, and clerical assistants.

In second place was "management" (2,463 ads), which was subdivided into two categories: general management (632 ads) and management of a specific area (1,831 ads). General management included executive directors/managers and administrative directors/managers; no department or division or professional area was identified in the ads.

TABLE I

Summary of Job Categories that Require Communication Skills

Job Category	Number of Ads
Accounting (auditor, controller, CPA)	301
Administrative Assistant/Secretarial Services	2,676
Architecture/Ergonomics	25
Attorney/Lawyer/Legal Expert	57
Banking, Investments, and Financial Services	233
Computer Information Systems (data entry, computer operator, software applications, programmer, analyst, computer/network support)	607
Construction	11
Credit and Collections	237
Customer Service/Support	504
Designer/Drafter/Graphics	86
Engineering	316
Factory Work/Mechanics	75
Health Services (technician, nurse, dental specialist, counselor, psychologist, pharmacist)	554
Insurance	151
International	29
Library Science	23
Management General Management (632) Management of Specific Area (1,831)	2,463
Manufacturing/Production/Plant Operations	71
Marketing and Sales	847
Personnel (Human Resources)	218
Printing/Reprographics/Publishing	20
Public Relations and Programs	97
Purchasing/Buying	77
Quality Control/Product Inventory	60
Real Estate	89
Science and Research	200
Security and Safety	55
Social Work	79
Teaching/Training/Training & Development	187
Travel and Transportation Services	89
Writing (grant writer, underwriter, copywriter, editor, technical writer, journalist)	266
Other (modeling, lobbyist, photographer, beautician, video producer, steward, nanny, intern, landscaper, cook, waiter/waitress, translator, verifier, makeup artist, animal control officer, sergeant, assessment referral specialist)	94
TOTAL	10,797

For management of a specific area, the following departments or divisions or professional areas were identified: accounting, office administration, banking/savings and loans, construction, computer information systems (management of information systems), credit/collection, customer service, education, engineering, health services, insurance/risk analysis, investments/finance, manufacturing/projects, marketing/advertising,

marketing/telemarketing, personnel/human resources, printing/publishing, public relations, purchasing, quality control, real estate/property management, restaurant management, retail sales, sales representatives, transportation, and training and development. The management areas with the largest number of ads requiring communication skills were health services (249 ads) and manufacturing/projects (216 ads).

Sharing the upper frequencies were: "marketing and sales," 847 ads, third place; "computer information systems," 607 ads, fourth place; and "health services," 554 ads, fifth place. Other job categories that had over 300 ads requiring communication skills were "engineering" (316 ads) and "accounting" (301 ads).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the tabulated summaries of this study, the researchers have reached the following conclusions:

1. Ten percent of the employment ads in the major, national newspapers analyzed request communication skills.

2. Newspapers in the Eastern Region of the United States had the largest percentage of communication ads; those in the South-Central Region had the smallest percentage.

3. The largest percentage of communication ads occurred during September; the smallest percentage occurred during February.

4. The newspaper having the largest number of ads requesting communication skills was the Washington Post; the smallest number was in the Houston Chronicle.

5. The newspaper having the highest percentage of communication ads compared to total ads was the New York Times; the Omaha World Herald had the lowest percentage.

6. Both the number of total ads and the percentage of these ads requiring communication skills increased throughout the year of the study, which lends additional support to substantiate the increasing importance of communication as a job skill.

7. In descending order, the most frequently requested skills were "communication skills" (5,024), "interpersonal skills" (2,651), and "oral/verbal and written communication skills" (1,790). These descriptions were very general in nature. This finding does not help educators determine what employers want, shedding little light on appropriate specific skills to be taught.

Also, this finding could suggest that employers may not know what specific communication skills they should specify in the ads.

8. Of specific communication skills being sought by employers, the most frequently requested one is telephone skills.

9. The job categories with the highest number of ads requiring communication skills (listed in descending order) were administrative assistant/secretarial services, management, marketing, computer information systems (management information systems), health services, engineering, and accounting.

Based on the major research findings, the authors make the following recommendations to business educators and researchers:

1. Business communication courses should include coverage of the specific communication skills that were identified with highest frequency in this study. In descending order, the top seven specific skills were telephone, report writing, technical documentation/writing, international communication, negotiation, dictation, and graphics. Because the request for telephone skills was significantly the highest, good telephone skills should not be assumed but should be taught and reinforced wherever possible in the business curriculum. Although telephone skills were requested the most in secretarial/clerical ads, many other occupations requested them as well.

2. Because over 10,000 job positions requested communication skills, which documents their importance, applicants should demonstrate those skills in the job search. Therefore, the job search unit should emphasize effective oral, written, and nonverbal communication skills in these activities: application/cover letter, resume/data sheet, interview, and follow-up letters.

3. Other communication studies cited earlier have produced specific information about desired communication skills, and some studies have ranked them in order of importance. However, the communication classified ads study did not yield the type and number of specific communication skills specified in other types of research. Thus, other methods might be used to confirm that communication skills employers say they want are indeed the ones they seek when employing individuals in various occupational areas. One way to obtain this information would be to survey various employment agencies who might be able to provide the specifics that the newspaper ads have not provided.

SUMMARY

Studying the classified employment ads of 20 major newspapers in the United States for a one-year period has revealed the most requested communication skills for over 31 job categories. Business educators can help their students to compete successfully in the job market by using this information in conjunction with the findings from other studies that identify those communication skills required in business and those that should be emphasized in the classroom.

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Using Business Communication Skills for a Successful Job Search

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A COLLEGIATE MODEL FOR IDENTIFYING DESIRED WORKPLACE BASICS AND DEVELOPING APPROPRIATE CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

Business teachers often struggle with (1) identifying the workplace basics desired by the employers in their communities and (2) developing appropriate curriculum to teach these workplace basics once they have been identified. This paper proposes a collegiate model that college and university educators can use to structure a graduate seminar to help secondary and postsecondary business teachers accomplish these two tasks.

INTRODUCTION

Workplace basics, a now-familiar term in business and education, has many definitions and descriptions. One of the most common frameworks used to define workplace basics or skills was developed by Carnevale, Gainer, and Meltzer (1989). They categorized workplace basics into the following seven groups: Learning to learn; reading, writing, and computation; oral communication and listening; creative thinking and problem solving; personal management (self-esteem, goal setting, motivation, personal/career development); group effectiveness (interpersonal skills, negotiation, teamwork); and organizational effectiveness and leadership. The National Association of Manufacturers' survey (Lankard, 1990) of employers found attendance, punctuality, and good work attitudes to be workplace basics needed by all employees. The Research and Policy Committee of the Committee on Economic Development's survey (Lankard, 1990) found that employers believe that the ability to learn, problem solve, work in groups, and demonstrate responsibility, self-discipline, pride, and enthusiasm are important workplace basics/skills. Most employers surveyed believe that workplace basics/skills must be taught in the schools.

Many of these basics/skills are considered part of education's hidden curriculum. O'Neil and Schmidt (1992) state, "Hidden curriculum elements . . . may not be taught as a specific subject or content area. While many hidden curriculum elements may be subtle in nature, most are crucial to an employee's success in maintaining occupational survival" (p. 21). In order to meet the demands of employers and to insure that the graduates of business programs obtain employment and remain employed, business teachers must teach workplace basics/skills boldly and aggressively. The hidden curriculum can no longer remain hidden.

Business teachers often struggle with the teaching of workplace basics/skills. They know that talking and writing about teaching these skills are easy; teaching them is not easy because of the difficulty in finding useful and meaningful learning activities which can be integrated into their business curriculum. Before teachers can select appropriate activities to integrate into their business courses, stimulate classroom discussions, or create exciting learning assignments focusing on workplace basics, they must identify the workplace basics/skills which they are going to teach and for which they are going to develop curriculum materials.

Identifying Workplace Basics

Identifying the workplace basics/skills to teach is not an easy task. Many of the descriptions and/or categories such as those developed by Carnevale, Gainer, and Meltzer (1989) are too broad; they serve only as starting points which teachers must narrow to specific, manageable skills. However, teachers' perceptions of the essential specific skills to be taught may not agree with those of employers. For example, a teacher can narrow the personal management category to include only time management skills. A teacher then may determine that good time management for an employee is to arrive at work on time, adhere to the allotted break times, and to leave work at the specified ending time. An employer may agree that, yes, good time management for an employee is all that the teacher has determined; but good time management, to this employer, also may include completing work assignments within reasonable time limits and prioritizing work. Therefore, teachers must seek input from the employers who are hiring the graduates of their business programs to determine if the needed workplace basics as perceived by these employers are being addressed in the classroom. This input goes beyond that expected and obtained from employers serving on a business program advisory committee.

Developing Appropriate Curriculum

College and university educators can structure a graduate seminar to help secondary and postsecondary business teachers

(1) identify employers' desired workplace basics/skills in their communities and (2) develop appropriate curriculum to teach these workplace basics/skills. This seminar can provide an avenue of learning in which (1) school/business partnerships can be created and/or strengthened, (2) the workplace basics of all seminar participants can be improved, and (3) activities, strategies, and methodologies can be developed for teachers to use in integrating workplace basics into their business curriculum.

The following model (See Appendix) is proposed for structuring such a graduate seminar. (The teachers enrolled as students in the graduate seminar are identified in the model as teachers/students.)

I. The seminar instructor and teachers/students will study the many published workplace basics to determine the framework to use and, when possible and appropriate, to narrow the published workplace basics into more manageable and specific topics. For example, Carnevale, Gainer, and Meltzer's (1989) broad category of oral communication and listening skills could include not only delivering speeches and learning listening skills, but preparing and delivering business presentations, making business introductions, and improving vocalics (conversing effectively).

II. The seminar instructor will form a team of two or three teachers/students to research, identify, and develop curriculum materials for each workplace basic determined in Step I. If business teachers expect their students to master teamwork skills, then they must be willing to work in teams and master teamwork skills. Having teachers/students complete individual inventories can help to match the teachers/students with the same interest in a particular workplace basic. Such inventories also can help to form teams of persons with compatible personalities, work habits, and skills.

III. The seminar instructor will prepare and distribute the required components of a curriculum project which focuses on workplace basics/skills. The teachers/students will use these components as guidelines for developing their curriculum.

IV. The seminar instructor will select and invite the major employers of business graduates in the surrounding areas/communities to serve as employer mentors (one employer mentor per team). Employer mentors will be asked to mentor the teachers/students teams as they try

to focus on and develop curriculum to teach in the schools the workplace basics/skills that these mentors deem important.

V. The seminar instructor will organize and chair a meeting to (a) introduce employer mentors to teachers/students teams, (b) share responsibilities of both mentors and teams, (c) schedule times for the teams to visit the workplace of their employer mentor to brainstorm with or survey/interview other staff about the specific workplace basics their employees need, and (d) establish timelines for each mentor to review his/her team's completed curriculum project. At the close of the meeting, teachers/students teams should submit to the seminar instructor agreed-upon times for both workplace visits and mentors' reviews of completed projects.

VI. Using the information and data gathered from their employer mentor's workplace, each teachers/students team will research, design, and create appropriate curriculum materials.

VII. The employer mentors will review completed curriculum materials developed by their teachers/students team and suggest revisions.

VIII. The teachers/students will revise their curriculum based on the input received from their employer mentors.

IX. The seminar instructor will videotape teachers/students teams' one-hour presentations to their peers and employer mentors and ask audience members to evaluate the presentations using a prepared evaluation form which was shared with the team members before their presentations. These videotapes then are available for viewing by the business program advisory committee members during their evaluation of the developed curriculum materials.

X. The seminar instructor will establish evaluation instruments and procedures for (a) teachers/students to evaluate the process followed in identifying workplace basics and developing curriculum, their experiences with other team members and their employer mentor, and the development or improvement of their own workplace basics; (b) employer mentors to evaluate the workplace basics/skills of the team members with whom they worked; and (c) business program advisory committee members to evaluate the revised curriculum materials developed by each team.

XI. The seminar instructor will encourage the teachers/ students to use the materials they developed in their classrooms and to present them at curriculum fairs in their school districts and at in-service activities.

SUMMARY

Business teachers and employers must work together to identify the workplace basics/skills to be taught in the classroom. After such identification, business teachers should develop appropriate curriculum and then seek the help of others (business persons and other teachers) for review and revision. Using the above-described model to structure a graduate seminar will not only help with these identification, development, and revision processes, but also will open communication between teachers and employers, enable teachers to become acquainted with and visit area businesses, strengthen the workplace basics/skills possessed by the teachers, produce usable and exciting curriculum materials, and involve program advisory committee members.

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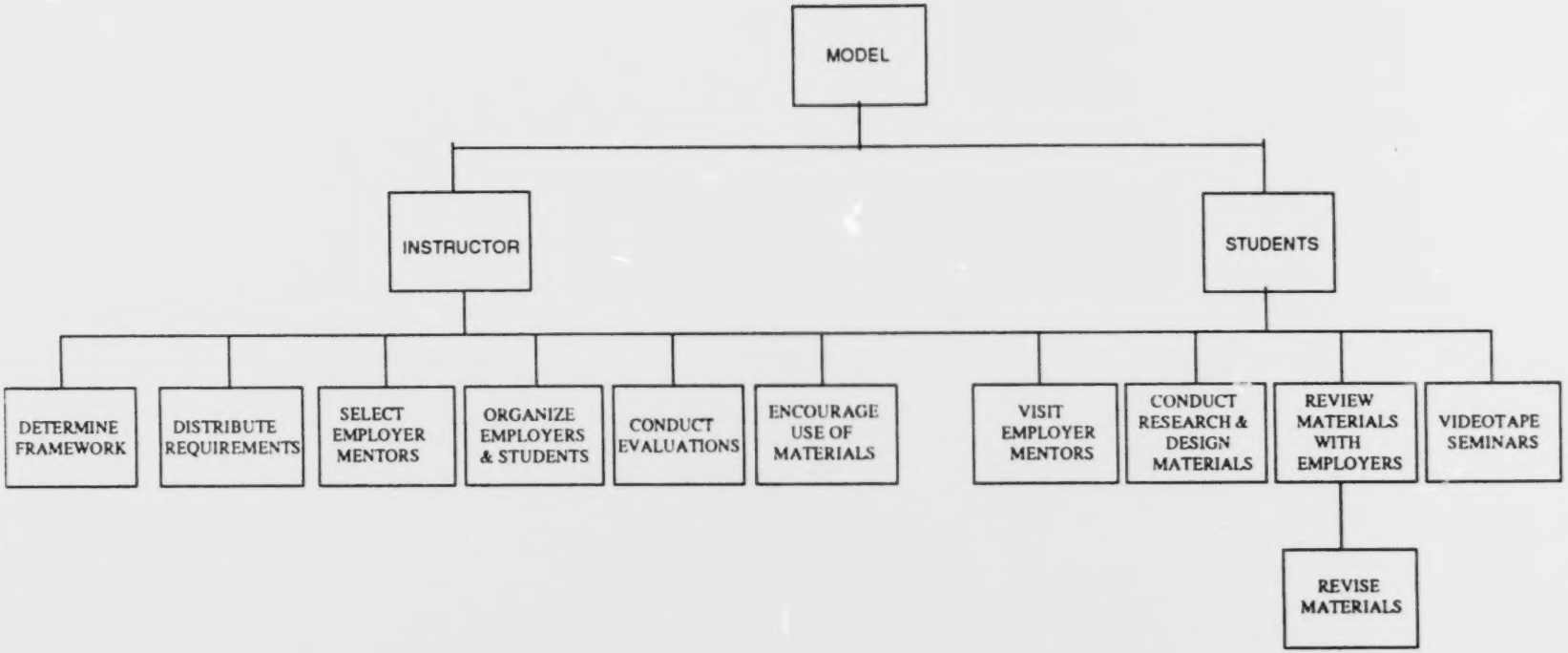

A COLLEGIATE MODEL FOR IDENTIFYING DESIRED WORKPLACE BASICS AND DEVELOPING APPROPRIATE CURRICULUM

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A CAREER DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR INTEGRATING REPORT WRITING, JOB RESEARCH, AND APPLICATION PAPERS

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ABSTRACT

Combining the coverage of job research, report writing, presentations, and application papers maximizes the use of time in a communications course. Student benefits include the importance of researching a career area/company prior to the interview, developing interpersonal communication skills, and learning to market themselves for an interview and possible job.

INTRODUCTION

"In order to get a job in which you will be happy, you must know what you want to do." The quote from the late John Crystal was used by Bolles when he urged young people to be honest and true to themselves during a job search (Bolles, 1989). Today's college graduates are facing a competitive market, workforce reductions, changing nature of work, and a flattened organization chart. At best, the job search process is a long, lonely, and often frustrating trip. Students' being prepared to cope with the application and employment process is of extreme importance in today's business environment.

As entry-level career positions become more competitive, employers are demanding quality skills in report and letter writing, E-mail, and effective interpersonal relations in day-to-day communications. As teachers listen to these demands, they attempt to cover many areas in general communications courses. While teachers are feeling the pressure to emphasize all skills, students are concerned about getting a job and developing application papers that will help them get in the door for an interview.

The purpose of this paper is to show a communications model for integrating report writing, job research, and application papers. By researching a career area, students obtain objective information about work choices. They compile a business report and give an oral presentation of their findings. The final segment of the unit is to develop application papers directed to the specific areas covered in the report research.

The unit is introduced with a general explanation of the purpose and overall goals. As report writing and research gathering methods are discussed, students are urged to choose report topics pertaining to a career area related to their majors, minors, or areas of interest. While most choose areas related to their career goals, some choose to investigate other fields because of personal interests.

Figure 1
A Career Development Model for Integrating Report Writing Job Research, and Application Papers

REPORT ASSIGNMENT	JOB RESEARCH	APPLICATION PAPERS
Purpose of report	Occupational Outlook Handbook	Personal résumé
Research career area	College Placement Annual	Cover letter for résumé
Written findings	What Color Is Your Parachute?	Follow-up letters
Personal evaluation	Business annual reports	Interview preparation
Conclusions	College placement offices	
Recommendations	Primary research interviews	
Oral presentation	Research aimed at writing report	
	Information used in applications	

Students are aware that they will use the report research developing a personal résumé and application or cover letter. By combining the report writing and application process, students gain experience in compiling and presenting reports while they are learning about themselves in preparation for the application process.

Figure 2 shows an outline for directions that are written and distributed to students at the beginning of the unit. The four-page document contains a cover page showing evaluation procedures, pages 2 and 3 which contain headings and paragraphs explaining each of the sections, and a final documentation page showing format. By using the sample report, students have a step-by-step guide for preparing the career report.

Figure 2
CAREER INFORMATION REPORT
Study of a Career Area

Purpose
The report purpose is explained in an introductory paragraph giving an overall view of the paper

Research Procedures
Primary and secondary research procedures along with documentation are explained

Presentation of Findings
Primary and secondary findings are presented in the report. Factual, objective reporting is recommended

Personal Evaluation
Students evaluate their own strengths and weaknesses and suitability to the career area being researched

Conclusions and Recommendations
Final recommendations of the report are based on the analysis of findings in relation to the personal evaluation

Oral Presentation
Five-minute oral presentations of the findings are given to the class. Personal evaluations are optional

Documentation
Documentation of all primary and secondary sources is included on a reference page

Appendices
Questionnaires and any other supporting documents are attached to the paper

Research

Once the purpose of the report is defined, students conduct both primary and secondary research. OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK HANDBOOK, COLLEGE PLACEMENT DIRECTORY, and other periodicals provide secondary information. A secondary search is done prior to the interviews in order to give students a better understanding of the career area about which they are asking questions.

Primary information is obtained from at least two people working in a position similar to the one being researched. Questionnaires and structured questions provide consistency in the interviews. Taped interview transcripts and questionnaire instruments are attached to the appendix section of the report.

Findings

After the research is completed, the findings are compiled in draft form. Students evaluate the factual information in an objective manner. Findings are put into a report complete with title page, table of contents, headings, illustrations, and references. Students utilize desktop publishing, word processing, graphics, and grammar checking software in preparing the business report.

Personal Evaluation

Socrates stated that an "unexamined life is really not worth living." Students are urged to evaluate themselves in terms of strengths and weaknesses and to decide whether their personal attributes fit with those required for the career position. An objective personal evaluation is often difficult but necessary for the application process.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The final section of the paper compares research findings with those in the personal evaluation. Students determine whether they think they are suited for the career. Their recommendations may include personal improvement strategies and goals or career direction changes.

Report Presentations

Five-minute oral presentations conclude the report section of the communications unit. Some choose to give factual data pertaining to the career area only while others choose to reveal their personal data and discuss themselves in relation to the findings of the report. Oral presentations emulate actual business reports. Students make decisions as to what types of visual aids to use in order to enhance and clarify their presentations. Some use computer projection systems and multimedia while others use slides. In a small class, reports are presented to all students. Group reports and discussions are used in large classes.

Report Evaluation and Grading

Reports are graded according to a checklist provided to students at the beginning of the unit. Evaluation sheets are clipped to the front of the final report. Since many students mark or check their own evaluations as they complete the work, extra sheets are available when they turn in the reports. Figure 3 illustrates the type of evaluation form used in order to ensure uniformity in grading. The actual evaluation form has each of the items listed on a separate line so that checking will be quick and easy.

Figure 3
CAREER DEVELOPMENT REPORT
Evaluation

Evaluation Items	Points	Your Points
Format (title page, contents, headers and page numbers, main and secondary headings, margins, spacing, widow/orphan protection, charts, graphs, figures, references	15	
GSP Skills (grammar, spelling, punctuation, composition, word usage)	15	
Presentation (visual aids, organization, voice, eye contact, time, business appearance)	10	
Content (statement of purpose, secondary and primary research, findings, personal evaluation, conclusions, recommendations)	60	
Total Points	100	
Comments		

Application Papers

Students have researched career areas, learned from each other, and developed an insight into their own qualifications. The next step is for them to choose a particular job or area for which they want to apply. Since they have researched the career area, developing the résumé is relatively easy because they are aware of the job requirements and necessary information to include. This helps them tailor the document to specific job needs rather than include a lot of generic information that will not be read. As a result of the personal evaluation, students know themselves and will be more likely to "sell" their strengths.

The cover letter that is written for the résumé is concise and directed toward a specific career or position as a result of the research. Variations among the reports and career areas illustrate why applicants need to write application cover letters for each situation. They use word processing to save their basic letter which they will change to fit each application situation. Even though several students research the same career area, the reports differ. Therefore, they realize that letters and résumés should be developed for each instance rather than to blanket the world with generic copies.

Interview Preparation

Students conduct either personal interviews or ask individuals to complete questionnaires during primary data collection for the report. They obtain information pertaining to on-the-job skills and duties and should learn to respect business people's time. When they are involved in an actual job interview, their responses should be enhanced as a result of their understanding of job requirements. Their questions and responses should be knowledgeable showing interviewers that they are informed and interested.

Students are much more comfortable and self assured when they are well informed. They have greater knowledge about where they are going and what they

want to do as a result of their report research and presentations. Even though some of them choose to change their focus and not apply in the areas of their research, it is still valuable to them because they have gone through the thinking and evaluation process enabling them to make informed decisions. They also share information and learn from each other.

Figure 4
Job Application Preparation

Personal Résumé	**Letter**	**Interview**
Functional or Chronological	**Application or Cover**	**Selling Self at the Job Interview**
Information	Purpose -- introduce résumé	Facts
Name, address,	Position sought	Accomplishments
Telephone number	Source of position information	Reactions to questions
Education	Summary of qualifications	Self-confidence
Experience	Reference to résumé	Punctual
Skills	Interview availability	
Activities and Honors	Stationery, envelopes, type	**Grooming**
Professional affiliations		
Personal data (optional)	**Reminder or Memory Jogger**	**Frequently Asked Interview Questions**
References (optional)	**Thank You for Interview**	**Ways to Learn about Jobs**
Appearance	**Acceptance or Refusal**	**Post Interview Evaluation**
One or two pages		
Organization		
Stationery and envelopes		
Type		

Conclusion

Integrating job research, report writing, presentations, and applications maximizes the use of time. It also provides for interaction among students and develops interpersonal communication skills necessary for interviewing and the application process. Utilizing office automation technology in the reports, presentation, and application papers results in students' using productivity tools to develop personal skills that will transfer to the business world.

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COLLEGE STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF WHAT SHOULD BE INCLUDED IN A RESUME

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ABSTRACT

College graduates need a resume to conduct a successful job search. The purpose of this research was to determine what kinds of information students majoring in business feel prospective employers prefer on a college graduate's resume. A questionnaire was given to 80 students enrolled in upper level business communication classes. It was determined that most college students do not know what should be included in a resume and need to learn that information to include to be able to conduct a successful job search.

INTRODUCTION

College graduates need a resume to conduct an effective, successful job search, because 97 percent of all employers expect a resume from a job candidate (Harcourt and Others, 1989). Students majoring in business are usually taught how to develop job search documents in a business communications class, and all colleges and universities have career planning and placement offices that will assist them in all phases of job search activities.

The primary objective for submitting a resume should be to get an interview. It is essential that college graduates be able to prepare an effective resume, in order to get that critical interview.

Research clearly shows that prospective employers are interested only in those credentials that make the graduate qualified for a particular position, and it is the college degree that makes the graduate a qualified applicant (Harcourt and Others, 1989).

Five hundred personnel administrators in Fortune 500 companies were surveyed and it was determined that the college degree is the single most important component of a recent college graduates resume; however, other areas also need to be included. Employers prefer a one page, chronological resume that includes information about the prospective candidate's work record, extracurricular activities, and special aptitudes and skills (Harcourt and Others, 1989).

Areas that should not be included in a resume include discriminatory information (race, religion, gender, age, marital status); high school activities, including athletics or musical involvement, and social or professional organizations; and complete reference data (Harcourt and Others, 1989).

PURPOSE AND METHODS

The purpose of this research was to determine what kinds of information students majoring in business feel prospective employers prefer on a recent college graduate's resume.

In order to determine students' perceptions of what information employers prefer to have included on a recent college graduate's resume, a questionnaire was given to students enrolled in upper level business communications classes at a four-year university. The students completed the questionnaire on the second day of class in the semester. The questionnaire was given on this day to assure that the students had not received any information from the teacher of the class. A total of 80 students in three classes completed the questionnaire.

FINDINGS

The 80 students were asked to indicate which resume format they feel employers prefer for a recent college graduate. Table I shows the formats the students selected.

TABLE I

Resume Format Preferences

Format Choice	Number	Percent
Chronological	33	41
Functional	19	24
Combination	28	35

The students were asked whether employers prefer to have a career or job objective included on the resume, 65 students feel a resume should include a career or job objective; and 15 students feel the resume should not include a career or job objective.

The students answering yes to the question about whether a career or a job objective should be included were asked to tell how important the career or job objective is on the resume. Table II shows the importance the students feel the employers place on the career or job objective.

TABLE II

Importance of a Career of Job Objective

Importance	Number	Percent
Essential	15	23
Very Important	22	34
Important	18	28
Somewhat Important	9	14
Unimportant	1	1

An employer will not consider an applicant for a position if there is a typographical error on a resume according to 71 percent of the students. The other 29 percent of the students feel the employer would still consider them for the position if they have an error on their resume.

The students were given a list of personal information and asked to check the items they should include on their resume. Table III is a summary of the personal information the students feel the employers prefer.

TABLE III

Personal Information Employers Prefer on a Resume

Personal Information	Number	Percent
Marital Status	27	34
Sex	30	38
Health	18	23
Picture	4	5
Weight	6	8
Height	7	9
Age	37	46
Number of Dependents	13	16
None	34	43

Employees feel students should be selective when listing the jobs they have had according to 60 of the 80 students. The other 20 students feel employers prefer all of the jobs where they have worked be listed.

If students feel they should be selective in listing their jobs, the students were asked to indicate which jobs employers prefer they should list. Table IV indicates the selective jobs the student should list.

TABLE IV

The Selective Jobs Students Feel Employers Prefer

Selective Job	Number	Percent
Most Recent	34	57
Jobs Pertaining to Major	33	55
Only Jobs Held the Past Five Years	19	32
Jobs Held the Longest	8	1

Table V shows the information the students feel the employers prefer to have included about the jobs they include on their resume.

TABLE V

Job Information Students Feel Employers Prefer

Job Information	Number	Percent
Position Title	73	91
Position Responsibilities	74	93
Company Name	76	95
Company Address	55	69
Supervisor's Name	45	57
Dates (Month and Year)	55	69
Dates (Years Only)	23	29
Skills Acquired	46	58
Duties Performed	67	84

The students were asked to indicate how much information concerning the schools they have attended, the employers prefer to have included on their resumes concerning the schools they have attended. Table VI shows the information the students feel the employers prefer to have included on their resumes concerning the schools they have attended.

TABLE VI

Information Concerning Schools Attended
Students Feel Employers Prefer

School Information	Number	Percent
List all Post-Secondary Schools	53	66
List only Post-Secondary Schools if a Degree was Obtained	23	29
High School	34	43
Degrees Received	71	89
Dates Degrees were Received	48	60
Grade Point Average	46	58
Location of Schools	30	38

According to students, employers feel it is acceptable to have a resume longer than one page. Forty seven of the eighty students feel it is acceptable to have a resume longer than one page. Nearly 60 percent of the 80 students feel the employers prefer to have references included on their resumes.

Table VII shows the information about activities students feel the employers prefer to have included on resumes according to the students surveyed.

TABLE VII

Information Concerning Activities
Students Feel Employers Prefer

Activity Information	Number	Percent
Organization Names	76	95
Offices Held	74	93
Committee Assignments	26	33
Dates	25	31
Duties	46	58

When asked whether employers preferred to have the students list courses they have completed during their college years, 43 percent of the students indicated employers do prefer to have some of the courses listed.

When the students were asked what they feel the purpose of the resume is, only one student of the 80 students answered that the purpose was to get an interview. The rest of the students indicated a number of other reasons including getting a job and letting employers see their qualifications.

The students were asked to indicate what source they used to base their responses to the questionnaire. Table VIII is a listing of the sources students used.

TABLE VIII

Sources Students Used to Complete the Questionnaire

Source Used	Number	Percent
High School Teacher	24	30
Post-Secondary Teacher	16	20
Career Placement Office	12	15
Business Employees	6	8
Friends	13	16
Personal Knowledge	36	45
Guessed at the Answers	16	20

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

Clearly, college students don't know the purpose of a resume nor do they know the kinds of information prospective employers want to see when they read a resume. A business communications course is the most preferred place for business students to learn how to conduct an effective job search, and most business communications textbooks include chapters on resume writing and other related job search documents.

Because many college students first learn how to write a resume in high school, it is imperative that the high school teacher stay current on the information for preparing a resume. The teacher need to know what employers prefer to be included on a resume so they can pass this information on to their students.

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Improving the Quality of Written Communication

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HANDWRITING: A HIDDEN EMPLOYMENT CRITERION

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ABSTRACT

Is handwriting an employment criterion? This research discusses the findings of a questionnaire that was mailed to selected Human Resource Managers in Northeast Arkansas. Human Resource Managers were asked specifically if an applicants handwriting was used in the employment decision. The majority said that handwriting is an employment criterion. Additionally, graphology is discussed and how it is used as an employment determinant.

INTRODUCTION

Employers are looking at job applicants' handwriting as an employment criterion. Everyone must do some writing in some form for an employer--if nothing other than a signature. But are people aware of how their handwriting looks? According to a survey conducted for the A. T. Cross Company (Schlosberg, 1989) 93% of Americans believe in the importance of good handwriting. Yet when it comes time to complete an application, some people seem to fail to recognize the importance of legible handwriting. Even in today's technological society, people still must use a pen to write some information.

Three personnel directors were asked specifically about applicants' handwriting. All three personnel directors stated that if they could not read an applicant's handwriting, they would not hire that individual. The inferences were that the job applicant will have negative work habits, i.e., lazy, careless, haphazard, or inattentive. Those responses led to this research. Consequently, Human Resource Managers were questioned about their requiring handwriting as a condition for employment. Additionally, several business communication teachers were questioned about their instruction in penmanship.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

According to the literature (Jacobs, 1982; Rohmann, 1983; Nelson-Horchler, 1984; Webster, 1987; Taylor, 1988; Mowbrey, 1988; Sinai, 1988; Evans, 1988; Kurtz, 1989; Berman, 1989; Keenan, 1990; and Fowler, 1991) several businesses are using job applicants' handwriting as an employment criterion.

Graphology

From the literature, business personnel explained their beliefs in the accuracy of handwriting analyses as performed by licensed graphologists. Graphology consist of taking a handwriting sample and analyzing the letters' slants, ovals, circles, loops, t-bars, i-dots, and size of writing. Graphologists claim that they can grasp a person's personality traits from a handwriting analysis.

Such traits as motivation, determination, persistence, problem-solving ability, organizational ability, management or sales potential, stubbornness, pessimism, indecisiveness, and argumentative behavior can be predicted (Nelson-Horchler, p. 101). Jacobs (p. 29) states that traits such as leadership potential, risk-taking abilities, empathy, diplomacy, attitude, and persuasiveness can be detected. Webster (1987) lists honesty, stress level, communication skills, and business attitude. Clearly, businesses are concerned about the personality traits of job applicants and how these applicants will "fit" into their companies.

However, Nelson-Horchler (p. 102) states that only job related characteristics are reported to an employer. Before an analysis is begun, a graphologist usually requests a job description, completes a company survey to determine a personality profile of other workers and management, and ascertains the company's work climate or atmosphere. Having this knowledge of the company helps to determine a comparison of job applicant's personality traits to the company.

EEOC and Graphology

Graphology is non-discriminatory. Age, religion, sex, and national origin cannot be predicted through an analysis (Webster, 1987; Jacobs, 1982). Furthermore, Jacobs (p. 29) states that the Equal Employment Opportunity Commissions's regulations are not thwarted through graphology. He warns, though, that if anyone can prove discrimination, the company may be held liable. Companies are cautioned to tell job applicants if their handwriting is going to be analyzed by a graphologist. Nelson-Horchler (p. 102) states

that no laws can be found that specifically state that handwriting analysis is an illegal employment criterion.

The Good in Graphology

Some helpful uses of graphology for companies are to determine if a person is a good credit risk, to pair business partners, to match applicants to specific jobs and with co-workers, to determine job promotions, to build "teams", to fill management training positions, to resolve conflict, and to determine motivational techniques (Kurtz, p. 43). Additionally, graphologists, as stated in an article in ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT (1987), claim to be able to determine if a potential job applicant will have trouble fitting in or being productive.

Businesses are willing to pay large sums of money to graphologists to ensure that the best applicants are hired. Some analyses cost from $30 to $500 depending on the requested information (Keenan, p. 48).

METHODOLOGY

To begin this study, two questionnaires were developed. One was developed to be sent to fifty-eight identified Human Resource Managers (HRM) in Northeast Arkansas. The questions asked were the following: Does your company require that applicants demonstrate their ability to write? How does your company test for writing skills? Are applicants told that their writing abilities are being tested? This questionnaire was reviewed by a panel and revised before it was mailed. Twenty-five questionnaires or 43% were returned and all were usable.

The second questionnaire was developed to be sent to randomly selected members of the Association for Business Communication (ABC). They were asked the following: How much class time do you devote to penmanship? Questionnaires were sent to 274 members of the ABC. Those returned numbered 147 or 54% and nine were unusable for this study.

FINDINGS

From the questionnaires sent to Human Resource Managers, to the question "Does your company require that applicants demonstrate their ability to write?", fourteen or 56% said "yes" and eleven or 44% said "no". This information is depicted on the next page in TABLE I.

TABLE I

TWENTY FIVE HRMS RESPONDING TO THIS QUESTION:
DOES YOUR COMPANY REQUIRE THAT APPLICANTS
DEMONSTRATE THEIR ABILITY TO WRITE

N = 25

Number of Respondents	Response	Percent of N
14	YES	56%
11	NO	44%

From the question "How does your company test for writing skills?", six options were listed. Respondents were asked to check each option that applied. Two or 11% checked the option "Applicants are required to take a written test that requires handwritten answers in sentence form." Fourteen or 78% marked "Applicants are required to complete employment applications on the premises." Two or 11% gave other responses. See TABLE II.

TABLE II

FOURTEEN HRMS RESPONDING TO THIS QUESTION:
HOW DOES YOUR COMPANY TEST FOR WRITING SKILLS?

N = 18

Number of Respondents	Percent of N	Options
2	11%	Applicants are required to take a written test that requires handwritten answers in sentences.
0	0%	Applicants are required to submit copies of their handwriting.
0	0%	Samples of applicants' handwritings are submitted to a graphologist or other handwriting expert for analysis.
14	78%	Applicants are required to complete employment applications on the premises.
0	0%	Applicants are required to demonstrated their ability to write letters, and/or reports.
2	11%	Other (please list)

When asked "Are applicants told that their writing abilities are being tested?", of the fourteen responding two or 8% said "yes" and 12 or 92% said "no". See Table III on the next page.

TABLE III

FOURTEEN HRMS RESPONDING TO THIS QUESTION:
ARE APPLICANTS TOLD THAT THEIR WRITING ABILITIES
ARE BEING TESTED

N = 14

Number of Respondents	Response	Percent of N
2	YES	8%
12	NO	92%

From the 138 usable questionnaires returned by ABC members, to the question "How much class time do you devote to penmanship?", six or 4% devote one hour while 132 or 96% devote no time. See TABLE IV.

TABLE IV

138 BUSINESS COMMUNICATION TEACHERS RESPONDING
TO THE QUESTION: HOW MUCH CLASS TIME DO YOU DEVOTE
TO PENMANSHIP?

N = 138

Number of Respondents	Response	Percent of N
6	1 Hour	4%
132	none	96%

Interestingly, several comments were made by business communication teachers regarding "penmanship" and are listed here.

Does anyone teach penmanship in this computerized age?
I certainly don't have time to cover this.
Lack of time available.
No legitimate B.C. content...more essential topics to teach.
Doesn't suit the times.
I would never include penmanship--a 19th century subject.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be made based on this study.

1. Businesses do use job applicants' handwriting as an employment criterion.

2. Most business communication teachers do not teach penmanship the business communication classroom.

RECOMMENDATIONS

For Business Communication Instruction

The following recommendations are made:

1. More emphasis should be placed on students' handwriting skills. The best place in the business communication curriculum may be in the Employment/Job Search chapters.

2. Students need to be told that their handwriting is being evaluated by business personnel according to its neatness and legibility.

3. Students need to be told about the negative inferences business management makes about illegible handwriting.

4. Students should be informed that businesses may subject job applicants' handwriting to graphologists for analysis.

For Further Research

1. The questionnaire to Human Resource Managers should be revised to state "handwriting" instead of "writing" in each reference.

2. A national survey of Human Resource Managers should be undertaken to determine the national use of handwriting as an employment criterion.

3. The questionnaire to business communication teachers should be revised to ask how much class time is devoted to teaching the importance of "handwriting" instead of "penmanship".

4. The questionnaire that was sent to the Association of Business Communication members should be sent to another random sample.

5. A survey to determine what kinds and how often handwritten messages are used in business should be conducted.

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Using Technology to Enhance Communication for Managers and Educators

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THE FACULTY DESKTOP: AN ANALYSIS OF CURRENT COMMUNICATION PARAMETERS

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ABSTRACT

With rapid technological changes, faculty face communication challenges. What is the state of technology at the faculty desktop--the faculty member's immediate office? The purpose of the study was to 1) identify technology currently available to faculty, 2) to examine the application of communication technology, and 3) to determine projections for future use of technology. An instrument was developed and mailed to 116 members of two professional organizations. A usable response rate of 59% was obtained.

The study found that over 94% of faculty have a computer at the desktop; 43% have electronic mail at the desktop; and 32% have voice mail at the desktop. Information about computer configurations and technology applications was also analyzed. In addition, projected technologies were detailed.

INTRODUCTION

Almost daily, technology surges ahead with new opportunities for improving communication. The familiar channels of telephone, letter, and memo are becoming eclipsed by technology such as desktop publishing, electronic mail, facsimile transmission, and voice mail. To provide students with the most current curriculum, many business communication instructors have modified their syllabi to incorporate new technologies as media for communication. However, it is essential that business instructors go beyond just talking about technology; they should be able to demonstrate through example (Bartholome, 1992).

Are business communication faculty actually using technology in their communications with students, with peers, with administrators, and/or with colleagues at other universities? Do they have such technology easily available to them on their desktop? If not, is technology readily accessible to them? In addition, how will technology impact their communication within the next few years?

Technology

> Business communication has become, to a large extent, electronic communication. . . In other words, since technology has become an integral part of communication, the technology used to create the message is as important as the message itself (Lundgren, 1988, p. 69).

Telecommunication technologies currently available and frequently discussed in business communication courses include desktop publishing, electronic mail, facsimile machines, and voice mail (Kuiper and Luke, 1992; Locker, 1992; Thill and Bovee, 1991).

The role of the teacher is to help students develop the skills they need to use technology proficiently. Technology goes beyond helping students to learn a specific computer software package--students should know how to learn a package, how to use that package, how to solve problems with the package, and how to change with technology (Wiggs, 1992). Business communication instructors should be able to do more than demonstrate just lip-service to the technological revolution in business today (Penrose, Bowman, and Flatley, 1987).

In many cases, the application of technology in the business communication classroom has not kept pace with the use of new technologies in the workplace. Significant hurdles to the integration of technology in business communication have included the limited hardware and software availability to schools as well as students' and teachers' limited computer knowledge (Lehman, 1991).

Business communication faculty should have practical experience with the technologies they are expected to address in the communication course. Knowledge of technology can be enhanced if the faculty member has the technology readily available for his/her use on a daily basis. The location of such technology may play a critical role in the faculty member's competence in the use of that technology.

Technological terms are frequently used interchangeably. For the purpose of this paper, clarification of specific terms is important.

Technological terms

The technologies discussed in this paper are described as follows.

Electronic mail can be defined as person-to-person communication in which the transmission and receipt of the message takes place through a computer. Also known as e-mail, the communication channel can be categorized as internal or external (Himstreet and Baty, 1990).

Facsimile machines can be used to send a copy of a document including text, data, and graphics through telephone lines as if it were making a copy of a document. By the year 2000 most business persons will either have a facsimile machine or fax software for their personal computers (Bell, 1992).

Voice mail enables a sender to leave a message in his or her own voice by using a push-button telephone. Further, the sender can record the message, play it back or transmit it (Locker, 1992). Such voice systems may be as simple as an answering machine added to an existing system or as complex as a computerized voice mail system which allows forwarding of messages to one or more individuals, copying messages with additional comments, and storing messages for future reference.

For this paper four additional terms are defined for clarification.

- The **faculty desktop** relates to the technology which is available to the business communication faculty member in his/her immediate office.

- The **workplace** pertains to the technology which may be available in the faculty member's department or building.
- The **organization** focuses on technology which is available on the campus but not within the faculty member's office, department, or building.
- The **home office** relates to the faculty member's access to technology that is not provided by the university. This technology may be located at home or in another professional environment.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to assess the technological environment of faculty teaching business subjects 1) to identify the communication capabilities currently available; 2) to examine the application of communication technology; and 3) to determine projections for future use of technology.

PROCEDURE

A survey instrument was developed to ascertain the availability of communication technology to business communication and related faculty members. The survey instrument was examined for face validity by a panel of five computing and communication faculty members. Their responses and suggestions resulted in minor modifications of the initial instrument.

Specifically, the instrument sought to determine the availability of technologies on the **faculty desktop**, within the **workplace**, within the **organization**, or in the **home office**. Additionally, the application of the various technologies was addressed. The purpose and audience of electronic communication were explored. Finally, respondents were given an opportunity to project their future implementation of communication technology.

The instrument was mailed during the Fall 1992 semester to 116 individuals who registered for the 1992 Association for Business Communication-Southwest and Southwest Administrative Services Association conferences. Of the 70 responses returned, 69 were usable for a return rate of 59%.

FINDINGS

Demographic questions were asked in several categories. Nearly 89% (61) of the respondents taught their discipline in the college of business; over 30% (21) taught at institutions with student enrollment from 10,001 to 15,000; nearly 90% of the universities received public funding; almost 40% of the respondents were at the professor rank; and over 98% of the respondents were employed full time.

Of the 69 respondents, 65 had a computer at their desktop (94.2%). Only 4.5% were required to share the computer with someone else. Configurations of the desktop varied. The most frequently cited items included a DOS-based machine, 3.5 and 5.25 drives, a 20-39 megabyte hard drive, a 386 chip, a mouse, a color VGA monitor, and a dot matrix printer (see Table I). Percentages may vary as not all respondents checked each category relating to the computer configuration.

The four respondents who did not have a computer at the faculty desktop indicated that they had a computer in the home office. In fact, 53.6% (37) of the respondents indicated that they had a home computer. The most frequently chosen configurations for a home computer would define the machine as a DOS-based machine with Windows, at least a 3.5 inch disk drive, a hard drive capacity of 40-60 megabytes, a 386 chip, a mouse, a monochrome or color VGA monitor, and a dot matrix printer. In addition, 27% (10) of the respondents indicated a laser printer was used at home. As of this survey, no respondents indicated having access to a 486 computer at the home office.

TABLE I
FACULTY DESKTOP CONFIGURATION

Item	No.	Percent*
DOS operating system	61	93.8
Windows operating system	26	40.0
3.5 disk drive	51	78.5
5.25 disk drive	50	76.9
Hard drive size in megabytes		
20-39	26	40.0
40-60	15	23.0
61-80	10	15.4
81 or higher	6	9.2
Chip component		
XT or 286	20	30.8
386	32	49.2
486	4	6.2
Monitor type		
Monochrome	17	26.2
Color - CGA or EGA	10	15.4
Color - VGA	28	43.1
Color - Super VGA	7	10.8
Printer type		
Dot matrix	39	60.0
Ink jet	5	7.7
Laser	20	30.8
Mouse	38	58.5

*Based on 65 respondents who had desktop systems.

The participants were asked to indicate the availability of communication technology. While only 5.8% of the respondents indicated a facsimile machine was available at the desktop, 65.2% marked that a facsimile machine was available at the workplace (See Table II).

Participants were asked to indicate two measures of technology application: 1) groups with which they communicate via the technology and 2) the frequency with which they use the technology.

Although some survey respondents indicated communicating with business people, the four major groups identified were students, administrators, peers within the university, and peers at other universities.

Electronic mail was cited as the most commonly used technology. Of the 46 respondents who indicated availability of electronic mail at their institution (desktop, workplace, and/or organization), 22 or 47.8% use e-mail daily. In communicating with

the major groups, 67.4% (31) communicated with peers within the university; 47.8% (22) communicated with peers at other universities; and 43.5% (20) communicated with administrators, while only 37% (17) used electronic mail to communicate with students.

TABLE II
AVAILABILITY OF COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY

	Desktop		Workplace		Home	
Technology	No	%	No	%	No	%
Electronic mail--local area network	30	43.5	21	30.4	4	5.8
INTERNET-BITNET	20	29.0	24	34.8	4	5.8
Voice Mail	22	31.9	12	17.4	5	7.2
Facsimile machine	4	5.8	45	65.2	2	2.9

The facsimile machine was the technology most readily available with 63 respondents indicating that availability at their institution. However, this technology was used less frequently than electronic mail with 19 (30.2%) participants indicating that they used the fax less than once a month. The use most cited (77.7%) was to communicate with peers at other universities. Faculty also used the fax to communicate with peers inside the university (19%); to communicate with administrators (15.9%); and to communicate with students (11%).

Less than 40% (26) participants indicated the availability of voice mail at their institutions. Of those with voice mail capabilities, 80.8% reported checking their mail daily. Of the major groups, communication with peers inside the university was highest with 84.6%. Communication also existed with administration (65.4%); with peers outside the university (61.5%); and with students (38.5%).

Several respondents indicated that certain technologies were not available at their universities. However, when participants were asked to indicate technologies they projected to use by 1995, electronic mail was the technology most frequently listed (Table III).

TABLE III
PROJECTED TECHNOLOGIES BY 1995

Technology	Number	Percent
Electronic mail	11	15.9
Color printer	10	14.5
INTERNET/BITNET	9	13.0
486 chip computer	9	13.0
Hard drive with 81+ megabytes	6	8.7
Notebook computer	6	8.7
Voice mail	5	7.2
Multi-media technology	5	7.2
Windows operating system	5	7.2

CONCLUSIONS

As a result of the findings, several conclusions can be drawn relating to the analysis of the faculty desktop and current communication parameters.

- Although computer configurations vary widely, almost all instructors from this population have a computer at their faculty desktop for their exclusive use.
- The typical computer configuration at the faculty desktop included a DOS-based machine, a 386 chip, a color VGA monitor, a 20-39 megabyte hard drive, and a dot matrix printer. However, several respondents projected a need for 486 machines with hard drives of 81 megabytes or higher.
- Communication technology was not as readily available as the computer. Less than half of the respondents had access to electronic mail at the desktop. Less than thirty percent had access to academic networks such as Internet or Bitnet.
- Electronic mail was more readily available at the faculty desktop than the other communication technologies studied with over forty percent having access. Such ease of access should enable faculty to expand and enhance their use of electronic mail.
- Facsimile machines, while not readily available on the faculty desktop, appear easily accessible at the workplace. No respondent projected adding the fax by 1995. The fax was a frequent choice for communicating with colleagues outside the university.
- The use of voice mail has not yet made a significant impact on communication with students as less than a third of the respondents have access to voice mail technology and an even smaller number of participants use voice mail to communicate with their students.
- Electronic communication's impact on students and their education has been minimal as less than a quarter of the total respondents communicate with students by electronic mail, voice mail, and/or facsimile machine.
- At the present time faculty use of electronic technology is focused more extensively on communication with peers and administrators rather than with students.

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Using Technology to Enhance Communication for Education and Practical Applications

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TECHNOLOGICAL TOOLS USED BY COMMUNICATION PROFESSIONALS

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ABSTRACT

This study was designed to determine the extent to which selected technologies are being incorporated into the business communication classroom and the extent to which they are being practiced by business communication professionals. A survey instrument consisting of a questionnaire and an introductory memorandum was sent to the 1993 Southwest Region membership (161) of the Association for Business Communication. No follow-up activities were used. Sixty-two usable responses were received for a 39% response rate.

The typical respondent has a computer in his/her office, uses an IBM platform computer and a laser printer. The typical respondent also has a home computer, and he/she uses it daily. WordPerfect, dBASE III PLUS, Lotus 1-2-3, Harvard Graphics, and PageMaker are the most commonly used software products.

Word processing, graphics, spreadsheet, desktop publishing, database, computer tutorials, electronic mail, information directories or services, and style analyzers are used by at least 50 percent of the respondents. Less than 25 percent of the respondents use hypermedia, hypertext, videoconferencing, expert systems, video systems, artificial intelligence, programming languages, videotex, and virtual reality.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study was designed to determine the extent to which selected technologies are being incorporated into the business communication classroom and the extent to which the technologies are being practiced by business communication professionals. Areas of interest included communication technologies incorporated into personal and/or professional endeavors and technologies incorporated into classes and/or course work.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Common communication technologies include word processing, graphics, spreadsheet, desktop publishing, database, computer tutorials, electronic mail, information directories or services, and style analyzers. Lyles, Winchell, and Holcomb (1991) list WordPerfect, Lotus 1-2-3, dBASE III PLUS, dBASE IV, Harvard Graphics, and PageMaker as the software most frequently used for the top microcomputer applications.

Collicott (1989) and Kreitzman (1989) encourage business to follow technology's lead in its acceptance and use of office automation tools. They site common communication technologies and program development facilities as widely used technologies to improve communication and information handling.

Frequent communication technologies include networks, telecommunications, image processing, electronic bulletin boards, voice processing, teleconferencing, and multimedia. Harbeson (1989) and Krueger, Kitchen, and Kitchen (1989) list telecommunication, CD-ROM units, electronic mail, and facsimiles as technologies used to disseminate information in business and in government.

Emergent communication technologies include hypermedia, hypertext, videoconferencing, expert systems, video systems, artificial intelligence, videotex, and virtual reality. Sherwood (1989) shows that hypermedia and hypertext applications are now providing improved search and retrieval for users of online services. Hypermedia is being touted by Haan, Kahn, Riley, Coombs, & Meyrowitz (1992) as a model for building object-oriented applications for database management and may be the model for integrating functions in the next generation of microcomputers.

Langendorf (1991) reports advancements in information technology are increasing efficiency in the production of written and oral communication. Harbeson (1989) adds that desktop presentation software and other applications like decision support software, while improving communication, also aid in other functions like recruiting.

Moeller (1990) and Wilson (1992) report that organizations will increasingly turn to videoconferencing as a way to communicate vital information quickly and uniformly to remote locations. With the addition of interactive digital graphics, conferees can manipulate drawings, photographs, and other documents.

Santhanam and Schniederjans (1991) and Jancura (1990) suggest that business schools should offer courses in artificial intelligence. They suggest that future managers will work with

computer-aided decision systems, expert systems, natural language interfaces, and other forms of artificial intelligence as media for distributing specialized expertise and improving personnel productivity. Bylinsky (1991) and Johnstone (1990) also support technology as a way to improve business and education, but they include virtual reality in their list of tools.

METHODOLOGY

The descriptive design was used as the research model for this study. After a review of literature, a questionnaire was prepared. This survey solicited responses to a series of technological tools commonly found in the literature.

A survey instrument consisting of the questionnaire and an introductory memorandum was sent t the 1993 Southwest Region membership (161) of the Association for Business Communication. No follow-up activities were used. Sixty-two usable responses were received for a 39% response rate.

FINDINGS

The vast majority of the respondents (91.9%) reported having computers in their offices. Of those, 60.3% use an IBM platform, 15.1% use a Macintosh platform, 5.7% use both IBM and Macintosh platforms, and 18.9% use a computer brand not identifiable as either an IBM or a Macintosh platform.

A majority of the respondents (63.3%) reported using laser printers. Ink jet printers are used by 6.7% of the respondents, and dot matrix printers are used by 28.3%. "Other" was selected to describe the type of printer used by 1.7% of the respondents.

Most of the respondents (62.9%) indicated that they have computers in their homes. Of the respondents with computers in their homes, 64.1% use their home computers daily, while 35.9% use their home computer once or more weekly.

The software most often reported by respondents includes WordPerfect, dBASE III PLUS, Lotus 1-2-3, Harvard Graphics, and PageMaker.

Table 1 summarizes responses concerning communication technologies incorporated into personal and/or professional endeavors and technologies incorporated into classes and/or course work.

Table 1

COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES INCORPORATED INTO PERSONAL AND/OR PROFESSIONAL ENDEAVORS AND INCORPORATED INTO CLASSES AND/OR COURSE WORK

Communication Technologies	Rank	Percent
Word Processing	1	92
Graphics	2	84
Spreadsheet	3	69
Desktop Publishing	4	66
Database	5	61
Computer Tutorials	6	55
Electronic Mail	7	52
Information Directories or Services	8.5	50
Style Analyzers	8.5	50
Electronic grade books	10.5	48
Networks	10.5	48
Telecommunications	12	45
Image processing	13	40
Electronic bulletin boards	14	34
Voice processing	15	32
Teleconferencing	16	29
Multimedia	17	27
Hypermedia	19	21
Hypertext	19	21
Videoconferencing	19	21
Expert systems	21.5	18
Video systems	21.5	18
Artificial intelligence	23	16
Programming languages	24	14
Videotex	25.5	11
Virtual reality	25.5	11

Word processing, graphics, spreadsheet, desktop publishing, database, computer tutorials, electronic mail, information directories or services, and style analyzers were reported by at

least 50 percent of the respondents as communication technologies used in their personal and/or professional endeavors and in their classes and/or course work.

CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which selected technologies are being incorporated into the business communication classroom and the extent to which the technologies are being practiced by business communication professionals. Demographic data were also solicited.

The typical respondent has a computer in his/her office, uses an IBM platform computer and a laser printer. The typical respondent also uses his/her home computer on a daily basis.

WordPerfect, dBASE III PLUS, Lotus 1-2-3, Harvard Graphics, and PageMaker are the most commonly used software products.

Word processing, graphics, spreadsheet, desktop publishing, database, computer tutorial, electronic mail, information directories or service, and style analyzers were reported by at least 50 percent of the respondents as technologies used. Less than 25 percent of the respondents reported using technologies like hypermedia, hypertext, videoconferencing, expert systems, video systems, artificial intelligence, programming languages, videotex, and virtual reality.

Conclusions

Business communicators use commonly available software products for common microcomputer applications. They also tend to use communication technologies in their personal and/or professional endeavors and in their classes and/or course work. A listing of software products and communication technologies have been identified in the findings.

Recommendations

The researchers recommend that business communication professionals conduct periodic studies of technology to confirm, alter, and/or update curricula offerings, pedagogy, and professional development. Additionally, the researchers recommend that business communication professionals should assume responsibility for using, teaching, and supporting technology.

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THE UNITED STATES AND LATIN AMERICA: A COMPARISON OF SELECTED CULTURAL DIMENSIONS IN THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT AND THE EFFECT ON COMMUNICATION

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ABSTRACT

A comparison of twelve cultural dimensions was made between the United States and the nineteen Latin American (LA) countries. For purposes of this research, the LA countries were considered as one culture as there are many similaries among the nineteen. The US and LA cultures were on opposite ends of a 10-point ranking scale on ten of the dimensions. The two dimensions where the two cultures were similar were Leadership and Verbal Communication. To achieve effective communication, business communicators in both the United States and Latin America must recognize their own culturally ingrained outlook of dealing with other cultures.

INTRODUCTION

Our economic and social world is changing as fast as our technological environment is advancing. With the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the fall in 1991 of communism in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union, the global picture has changed dramatically. Business communication educators are aware of and must make the necessary adjustments for these changes and the diversity that exists. Preparation is the answer: prepare themselves, their students, and the business leaders for the communication pitfalls that are present in the international business arena.

Perhaps one of the severest communication problems is that of cultural diversity; it can be the cause of a great deal of misunderstanding. Even though culture has been defined on a number of occasions, experts still have trouble agreeing on a "standard" definition. Davis and Redmann provide a broad definition: the knowledge, values, beliefs, customs, and practices of a society that provide the society standards of behavior and feelings of

identification. A member of a society is a descendant of a culture that shapes actions and thinking" (1991, p.55).

Ethnocentrism is another major barrier to effective communication. Cultural diversity plays a large part in promoting this barrier. As defined by Random House Dictionary ethnocentrism is the "Belief in the inherent superiority of one's own group and culture; it may be accompanied by feelings of contempt for those others who do not belong; it tends to look down upon those considered as foreign; it views and measures alien cultures and groups in terms of one's own culture" (1988, p. 454). Ethnocentrism is deceptive precisely because members of any culture perceive their own behavior as logical since that behavior works for them.

Conflict due to misunderstanding in cross-cultural communication, however, may affect even enlightened communicators. "Being aware," as one expert stated, "does not necessarily mean that one eliminates one's own ethnocentrism" (Ronen, 1986, p.4). Thus, to see beyond the ethnocentric boundaries of their cultures is difficult for business people even when they are aware that their own behavioral patterns may not be universal.

Indeed, some experts ascertain that many concepts on which communicators base their assumptions are gleaned from perceptions below the conscious level (Singer, 1987). While the degree of importance of subconscious perception in communication is debated among experts, the possibility that the structure of values and perceptions on which the communicator's message rests is subconscious has great implications for the intercultural communicator (Borisoff, Victor, 1989, p. 125). If the communicator's assumptions derive from subliminal perceptions, then as Singer observes, "It becomes particularly difficult to get people to establish different perceptual frames, precisely because they do not know--consciously--what caused them to establish those frames in the first place" (1987, p.77). To reduce communication-based misunderstanding between cultures, the parties involved must strive to comprehend their own culturally imbued ways of viewing the world. The effective communicator understands how the perception of a given message changes depending on the culturally determined viewpoint of those communicating.

CROSS-CULTURAL TRAITS

In the following discussion, a group of twelve cross-cultural traits are examined to determine if there is a difference in attitude concerning these traits between the U.S. and the Latin American countries. A ranking scale (1 - 10) was used to assess the position of the two entities. The U.S.'s position and defining of diminsions was presented in Kolde's Environment of

International Business, (1985 p.421-422). The Latino countries position was determined using secondary research in consultation with several Latino students.

Verbal Communication

US = EXPLICATIVE: Comprehend subject by relying on facts and logical explanations, making direct statements.

LA = IMPLICATIVE: Comprehending subject of communication through linkages to its environment or other events, relying on analogies, symbolisms, and indirect statements. (7)

Nonverbal Communication

US = PASSIVE: The U.S. business person avoids personal contact and as Kolde stated, "uses the 'stiff upper lip' technique."

LA = ACTIVE: Personal interaction characterized by touching, gesticulation, facial expressions, and other forms of body language. (10)

Personal Orientation

US = INDIVIDUALISTIC: Reliance on individual initiative, self-assertion, and personal achievement and responsibility.

LA = COLLECTIVISTIC: Emphasis on belonging to organizations or clans, acceptance of group decisions, values, and duties. (8)

Class Structure

US = VAGUE: No generally recognized social classes, income and achievement act as main differentiators, social mobility high, individual's social status unrelated to class.

LA = DISTINCT: Existence of overt social classes, interclass mobility and interaction restricted, individual's status dependent on class. (9)

Latin Americans are born with a sense of place but the two--class society (very rich and very poor) is giving way to a growing middle class.

Social Status (of Managers)

US = RANK DEPENDENT: Social standing and esteem linked primarily to managerial position and advancement in organizational rank, class origin nonessential.

LA = CLASS DEPENDENT: Social standing and esteem derive primarily from class origin, organizational rank secondary. (9)

This attitude is changing as the middle class grows.

Concepts of Achievement

US = UNBALANCED: Object of work is wealth-salaries, bonuses, fringe benefits, and other material rewards; need hierarchy downgrade and psychological factors.

LA = BALANCED: Object of work is self-actualization; in addition to money employees' needs hierarchy includes recognition, belonging, security, and other non-material rewards. (8)

Decisions-Making Style

US = DEMOCRATIC: Manager is expected to ask inputs from subordinates and others affected before decision is taken; information sharing and informal consultations are accepted procedures.

LA = AUTOCRATIC: Manager is expected to formulate decisions either individually or with aid of experts; seeking inputs from subordinates indicates ineptitude; decision is finalized before being announced; informal discussions with subordinates avoided. (10)

Leadership Style

US = TASK ORIENTED: Primary attention paid to technological and operational factors; strict enforcement of company rules, legal and contractual commitments, and top-management expectations.

LA = TASK ORIENTED (2)

Opposed on the scale = PEOPLE ORIENTED: Primary attention paid to human factors, organizational morale, and motivation; utilization of group dynamics and intergroup tensions for organizational goals.

Kinship Bondage

US = WEAK: Nuclear family structure with husband-wife relationship central; children socialized mainly outside kinship structure and become "autonomous" on reaching adulthood; kinship influence on business slight.

LA = STRONG: Close identification with family and kin; children socialized mainly in extended family structure; deep commitment to family honor, loyalties, and responsibilities; kinship and business ties coincident. (9)

Modes of Thinking

US = PRAGMATIC: Information interpreted in context of practical use or action.

LA = UNIVERSALISTIC: Information interpreted in context of general principles, ideologies or concepts. (8)

Problem Solving

US = SCIENTIFIC: Logic and scientific methods used.

LA = TRADITIONAL: Following precedence of adapting old procedures to new problems. (8)

Time Orientation

US = INTENSE: Correlating time with productivity and progress; time must not be wasted--keep busy; time is money; punctuality is important; preparations for future are essential.

LA = CASUAL: Time is to be enjoyed; one must not become a slave of time; hurrying and rigorous schedules are to be avoided; understanding and preservation of the past is to be protected against change. (10)

SUMMARY

In reviewing the ranking on the 10-point scale, the following table indicates the position of the two cultures on the scale. The first column lists the cultural dimensions; the second column, the U. S.'s position on the ranking scale; and the third column, Latin America's position on the scale.

Dimension	U.S. Rank	Latin America Rank
1 Verbal Communication	1	7
2 Nonverbal Communication	1	10
3 Personal Orientation	1	8
4 Class Structure	1	9
5 Social Status	1	9
6 Concepts of Achievement	1	8
7 Decisions-Making Style	1	10
8 Leadership Style	1	2
9 Kinship Bondage	1	9
10 Modes of Thinking	1	8
11 Problem Solving	1	8
12 Time Orientation	1	10

As indicated by the table, the United States and the Latin American countries have more differences than similaries. They are on opposite ends of the spectrum on Nonverbal Communication, Decisions-Making Style, and Time Orientation with LA ranking "10" and US ranking "1." LA ranks "9" on Class Structure, Social Status, and Kinship Bondage; and "8" on personal Orientation, Concepts of Achievement, Modes of Thinking and Problem Solving. The two areas are closest on the Leadership Style dimension with the Latinos ranking a "2" and the United States a "1."

In order to achieve effective communication, citizens of both the U.S. and the Latino community must work to overcome their conscious and unconscious ethnocentrism reactions. These reactions have a decided effect on communication; and in order to interact with other cultures, all people in the US and LA must become adept at intercultural communication. In order to accomplish this, they must recognize that the sending and receiving of messages within a context of cultural differences produces different effects.

As previously stated by Ronen (1986): "Being aware does not necessarily mean that one eliminates one's own ethnocentrism." Not being aware can only create unbelievable miscommunication. To understand the differences is a starting point, to accept the difference and to adjust to the situation is the goal.

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FORMAT AND FOCUS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION TRAINING PROVIDED BY SELECTED U.S. INTERNATIONAL FIRMS

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ABSTRACT

The following paper reports the results of interviews conducted with representatives of 29 international firms to determine what preparation, if any, is provided business professionals who operate in the global business environment. The problem of this study was to determine the characteristics, such as content, focus, and format, of existing intercultural communication education or training programs provided by selected firms for U.S. business representatives operating in foreign countries.

INTRODUCTION

Failure by individuals in international positions can cost their companies millions of dollars (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991). Many failures by expatriate managers have resulted from a lack of crosscultural communication training which left them unprepared to adapt to a new and confusing culture. Intercultural training has been proven effective in assisting adjustment and strengthening performance of U.S. expatriate managers (Black & Mendenhall, 1990).

Elements related to culture and the communication process include historical background, world view, language, stereotypes and prejudices, role and social relationships, preconceptualized frames of reference, ethnocentrism, nonverbal behavior patterns, spatial relations, values of right and wrong, viewpoint toward time, factors governing success and failure, thought patterns, and norms of punishment and reward (Dodd, 1987; Ehrenhaus, 1983; Samovar & Porter, 1991; Torbiorn, 1988).

In discussing barriers to successful intercultural communication, Barna (1972) cited language, nonverbal signs and symbols, preconceptions and stereotypes, personal evaluation (approval or disapproval of behavior), and high anxiety as the most probable causes for misunderstanding when messages are being passed between

members of more than one culture. These many differences and the corresponding anxiety and strain they cause result in what has been referred to as culture shock (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1988).

Interest in education or training to prepare business persons for international positions has become more concentrated as global operations have increased during the previous decade (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Grove & Torbiorn, 1985; Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983; Limaye & Victor, 1991; Martin, 1991). In her review of the literature related to international business, Adler (1983) determined that, of the articles published in 24 business journals in the decade prior to her quest, only 3.1 percent focused upon the interactions between members of more than one country.

Most researchers propose that incorporating intercultural training into the preparation of business people for foreign work experiences will assist them in adapting business practices to the host country culture. The primary focus of intercultural training is to increase awareness of the unexpected or unfamiliar characteristics within a foreign culture in order to function effectively (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Earley, 1987).

PROCEDURES AND FINDINGS

Data for this research project involved the collection of information through interviews with 29 representatives of selected international companies in the Mid South. After reviewing the literature, the resulting list of general communication elements and intercultural training factors was used to develop a questionnaire which was verbally administered during the interview.

Demographic Profile of Responding Companies

The majority of participating firms (51.7%) were manufacturing concerns; the remaining included service (17.3%); wholesale trade (13.9%); finance, insurance, etc. (6.9%); transportation (3.4%); agriculture, forestry, etc. (3.4%); and mining or petroleum (3.4%). Most (58.6%) of the firms indicated that less than 25% of their profit was derived from foreign business; 24.1% gained 25%-49% of their total profit from overseas ventures; 3.4% received 50%-74% of their profits from foreign monies; and 13.9% gained 75%-100% percent of their income from foreign business.

Most firms (79.3%) responded that fewer than 50 of their employees traveled to foreign countries. Only 10.3% of the companies involved had over 150 employees in the international arena. Over 92% of the firms were doing business in at least five countries, with 32.1% of the companies having employees traveling to or working in 25 or more countries. A majority of participating

firms (55.1%) had no in-house training staff. Of those that did, only one offered an intercultural program for international business employees. This single company had a formal plan that included the spouse in the predeparture preparations. Only 14 of the 29 organizations (48.2%) offered some type of predeparture intercultural preparation at company expense.

Description of Intercultural Preparation Formats

Four survey choices related to intercultural preparation formats were included. Interviewees were asked to respond to all choices which applied to their company. Briefing, three or fewer hours using primarily discussion or lecture, received the most responses, with 78.6% of the companies indicating this format use in their predeparture intercultural preparations. Orientation, one to two days of lecture, discussion, videos, role play, written interpretations, etc., was used by 42.9% of the firms. Education, regularly scheduled meetings over a period of time, was utilized by 28.6%. No firms used training, one week to six months of intensive on-site preparations. In every case, interviewees cited time as the reason for not using the training format.

Interviewees were asked to include additional formats used but not indentified on the survey instrument. One format added by 35.7% of the respondents included reading materials, such as books and articles in periodicals ordered with company funds, or pamphlets requested from host country foreign ministries.

Identification of Focus of Preparation

Choices of focus for predeparture intercultural preparations offered included country or culture specific, general intercultural, language specific, and other. Country or culture specific preparation was offered by 78.6% of the firms; general intercultural, by 21.4%; and language specific, by 57.1%. Three firms added job-related information to their intercultural preparations, citing technical differences as the primary reason.

Classification of Intercultural Preparation

Interviewees were asked which of 12 different preparation methods were used by their firm and to describe additional ones used but not identified. With each format, the interviewee was to determine if that format was used with country-culture specific, general intercultural, or language specific preparation. Table 1 gives percentage responses to this question.

Only one survey method was used by the majority of the firms offering predeparture preparation. Language cassettes were the most often used learning method with 64.3% of the firms offering this format to their international managers. Briefings from other

international employees was a method added by a majority of interviewees. Those traveling to a foreign country most often conferred with co-workers about local culture, business practices, etc. Predeparture briefings about specific cultures or countries was added by 50% of the firms. Every company using this methodology cited the ease with which employees could get additional information as a major consideration for its use.

TABLE 1. INTERCULTURAL PREPARATION FORMATS USED BY FIRMS

Type of Format	Culture Specific fq	Culture Specific %	General Int'cultural fq	General Int'cultural %	Language Specific fq	Language Specific %
College/univ. regularly scheduled class	0	0	0	0	2	14.3
Coll/univ. specifically designed course	1	7.1	1	7.1	6	42.9
Consultant/specialist briefing	2	14.3	2	14.3	0	0
Consultant/spec. orientation programs	3	21.4	3	21.4	0	0
Consultant/spec. training in U. S.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Consultant/spec. trng. in host country	1	7.1	2	14.3	2	14.3
In-house training staff briefings	2	14.3	2	14.3	2	14.3
In-house training staff orientation	1	7.1	1	7.1	0	0
In-house training staff training programs	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cassette tapes for home use	2	14.3	2	14.3	9	64.3
Printed matter for home use	6	42.9	5	35.7	2	14.3
Video tapes	5	35.7	5	35.7	1	7.1

Frequency of Communication Elements in Preparation

Interviewees were asked to identify how often 14 intercultural communication factors were included in predeparture preparations. Possible responses were: *Almost Always* (AA = 81-100% of the time), *Most of the Time* (MT = 61-80% of the time), *Some of the Time* (ST = 41-60%), *Not Usually* (NU = 21-40%), and *Almost Never* (AN = 0-20% of the time). Table 2 includes the number of companies as well as percent responses to each category.

Those communication items included the majority of the time (*Almost Always* and *Most of the Time*) were acceptable behavior and attire in the host country (71.4%); attitudes, feelings, and perceptions of host country people toward others (71.4%); educational systems or methodologies (50%); financial systems or currency information (71.4%); local economy or economic systems in place (50%); information about culture shock (64.3%); language instruction

(78.6%); political systems or power/authority sources in place (50%); and values or value systems (64.3%).

TABLE 2. ITEMS INCLUDED BY FIRMS PROVIDING INTERCULTURAL PREPARATION

Intercultural Element	AA fq	AA %	MT fq	MT %	ST fq	ST %	NU fq	NU %	AN fq	AN %
Acceptable behavior/attire	8	57.1	2	14.3	2	14.3	2	14.3	0	0
Attitudes and perceptions	8	57.1	2	14.3	3	21.4	1	7.1	0	0
Communal/family influences	3	21.4	2	14.3	1	7.1	4	28.6	4	28.6
Local econmony/systems	4	28.6	3	21.4	3	21.4	3	21.4	1	7.1
Educational systems	1	7.1	6	42.9	4	28.6	1	7.1	2	14.3
Financial systems	8	57.1	2	14.3	2	14.3	2	14.3	1	7.1
Culture shock	4	28.6	5	35.7	4	28.6	1	7.1	0	0
Language instruction	9	64.3	2	14.3	2	14.3	1	7.1	0	0
Laws or legal systems	2	14.3	1	7.1	4	28.6	3	21.4	4	28.6
Management practices	1	7.1	3	21.4	5	35.7	3	21.4	2	14.3
Nonverbal communications	3	21.4	3	21.4	3	14.3	3	21.4	3	21.4
Political/power systems	3	21.4	4	28.6	3	21.4	1	7.1	3	21.4
Verbal/thought patterns	1	7.1	4	28.6	3	21.4	2	14.3	4	28.6
Values and value systems	4	28.6	5	35.7	2	14.3	2	14.3	1	7.1

Two communication elements were added by interviewees. Technical differences were included in predeparture preparation by 9 firms the majority of the time, while religion was included by 11 firms. Technical differences were important to manufacturing firms with plants in foreign countries and to engineering firms with projects under construction.

SUMMARY

Major multinational corporations and medium sized companies with international interests as well as small family owned firms prefer short learning formats that are country or culture specific. To encourage U.S. firms in the global marketplace to provide intercultural communication preparation for their business professionals who operate in foreign countries, both educators and trainers need to be more focused in their preparatory methods. Developing short intensive sessions will make international firms more receptive.

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COMMUNICATING ACROSS THE BORDERS

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ABSTRACT

In order to transact business, communication must occur between at least two persons. While business transactions between Japanese and Americans increase daily, improvement of Americans' communication skills should improve their business success.

Skills can be improved through gaining knowledge about the Japanese and meaning of their bow, use of business cards, facial expressions, eye contact (or lack thereof), body gestures, tactile aspects, and negotiation procedures. While in-depth information would require several volumes, awareness and benefits can be gained from this article.

INTRODUCTION

Imagine a world in which interaction and trade among nations was non-existent. No multi-national corporations . . . no Olympic games . . . no BMW's in America . . . no foreign exchange . . . no McDonald's in Japan . . . no oil exports from Saudi Arabia. Today's enmeshed world is difficult to envision in this fashion. This is precisely the reason for international communication's importance. Without effective communication skills across cultural lines, all efforts (business and otherwise) are in vain.

International communication in and of itself is an extensive topic. For this reason, communicating only with the Japanese will be explored.

EXPLORING JAPAN

Japan, the third largest market today, is an evolving society of vastly different beliefs and values as compared to the Western world. To believe that the Japanese think and behave as Americans do is as absurd as imagining Americans routinely dress in

kimonos, sit on tatami mats, and eat rice. Today's businessperson must be knowledgeable of the Japanese culture. Ignorantly believing that the Japanese should conform to the American culture is self-defeating.

Several symbols represent words or expressions to the Japanese that must be conveyed verbally in other countries. For Americans to be successful with the Japanese, they must learn how to comprehend the significance of important traditions e.g., the Japanese bow, business card exchange, different meanings of eye contact, facial expressions, typical Japanese body gestures, tactile aspects, and time concepts.

The Japanese Bow

One of the most important examples of Japanese nonverbal communication is the bow or ojigi (oh-jee-ghee). Even more important to one's success than the handshake in America, the bow serves as a Japanese greeting and farewell. Even though the bow and the handshake appear to be only a means to exchange greetings, the implications of the bow have much deeper significance. It represents respect, social harmony, and personal humility. At the beginning and ending of every meeting, Japanese businessmen will bow very formally to those present to show respect to the other person. It is their time-honored way of saying, "Your experience and wisdom are respected by me."

Today many Japanese with business experience among non-Japanese will be expecting a handshake, but will the non-Japanese person be expecting or know how to respond properly to their bow? An American should not try to initiate the bow of the Japanese; however, a nod of the head or a slight bow is considered acceptable.

For Westerners, the bow is more difficult to perfect than the handshake is for the Japanese. Foreigners must remember not to rise from a bow until the Japanese counterpart has done so. Vitally important for successful relations is to return each bow. To not return a bow, one is signifying rudeness, lack of awareness, and coldness to the Japanese. Immediately after the bow(s), the Japanese will expect to shake hands with non-Japanese persons. After the bow (and handshake), be prepared to exchange business cards and greetings properly.

Business Cards

An obvious and useful difference between Japanese and non-Japanese business customs is the use of business cards or meishi on every occasion when one businessperson meets another for the first time. The non-Japanese should have advance information about the Japanese who are anticipated to attend the meeting. Card exchange,

bows, greetings, and others social protocol should begin with the highest ranking Japanese and proceed in descending rank. Normal procedure is for the Japanese to make the first gesture in the card exchange; however, be prepared since the handing of one card and accepting of the other should be simultaneous. Be sure that the card is extended with the right hand (not left) with Japanese printing up (non-Japanese printing down) and readable from the recipient's view. Accept the card from the Japanese with the right or both hands, but never with the left hand only. The cards are exchanged one at a time and with care (never as though one were "dealing out" cards for a game of bridge). Each reads the card received, then bows, and makes appropriate remarks. A non-Japanese should never address a Japanese by his first name. Use his last name and add the word "san," which means "mister."

Business cards serve a very useful function. After the card exchange is completed, businesspersons are usually seated, facing each other, with a low table between them. After exchanging calling cards, the person places the newly acquired cards on the table. Being able to view the cards prevents embarrassments that may occur when one is forced to rely on one's memory. In addition, the business card provides a record of the name, position, and company of each person one meets. A file of these business cards becomes a very important asset to anyone doing business with the Japanese.

The typical business card for use by non-Japanese businessmen will have the Japanese transliteration of the individual's name, company, its address, and the person's title on one side. The other side will have the same information printed in English--by far the most common foreign language used in Japanese business. Japanese businessmen will have a similar type of business card printed in both Japanese and English. As the Japanese and non-Japanese businesspersons continue communication, non-Japanese should be knowledgeable of and sensitive to several area of nonverbal communication.

Facial Expressions

Japanese nonverbal facial communication is often contradictory in meaning to what most Americans envision. Generally, one in the United States would associate a typical smile as a feeling of happiness or satisfaction. This may not be true with the Japanese. To them traditionally, one is not to show signs of pain and suffering; sad emotions are hidden under a smile.

The reason for the seemingly out-of-place smile is, however, more complex than just an attempt to hide negative emotions. The ability to maintain a smile or appearance of being happy during hard times shows respect to superiors and strong mental control.

Although the Japanese are knowledgeable of Westerners' facial expressions, including eye contact, the wise non-Japanese, should realize a smile may have a meaning unlike that of another nationality.

Eye Contact

The presence and importance of eye contact to the American is neither present nor important among Japanese when they communicate. Often the lack of nonverbal attention confuses Americans causing them to feel unimportant or even rejected by a Japanese counterpart. Neither party is at fault; the cultural backgrounds of the Japanese and the Americans dictate eye contact differently.

American young people are taught that maintaining eye contact during a conversation is important and shows respect to the other party involved in the conversation. Japanese young people are taught the opposite. They are taught that eye contact is avoided altogether; and, if used too much, is considered disrespectful.

An American must remember not to look into the Japanese person's eyes while talking as the person may feel uncomfortable or threatened. Awareness of eye contact facts can help American businesspersons avoid several problems that may lead to feelings of mistrust and slow progress during meetings. Remember that when a Japanese diverts eye attention away from an American, the Japanese is showing respect for the other person. In conjunction with eye contact, other body gestures are important.

Body Gestures

Gestures Americans use differ greatly from those used by the Japanese. Even the simple action of nodding can mean different things between two cultures. While meaning "yes" in the United States, a nod by a Japanese may be ambiguous. The Japanese nod may represent feelings of embarrassment or that he thinks the one with whom he is communicating is funny. The Japanese move an open hand in front of one's face, palm facing left, to signify "no" or a negative response. Obviously, for an effective relationship to continue, the American party must by able to interpret the meaning of the nod instead of creating an even more degrading situation by assuming that the Japanese counterpart is answering in the affirmative.

Thus one can conclude an American must become thoroughly familiar with the meaning of gestures as interpreted by the Japanese. Closely associated with gestures is the area of tactile involvement (as related to both physical touching, space allocations, and collectiveness) and concepts related to time.

Tactile Aspects

Another difference in nonverbal communication between Americans and Japanese is the aspect of touching, space allocations, and collectiveness. The Japanese have an aversion to casual body contact. The idea of togetherness and social unity are both unique and interwoven into the Japanese culture. To be accepted socially, an individual in Japan must belong to a group where ideas and opinions are interchanged freely between members. The group that fits this description is their place of employment. By not being involved with such a group, a Japanese citizen may be labeled "an outsider" by the rest of society. By contrast, togetherness and group dependence receive less emphasis since Western societies value individuality and independence so much.

Harmony, consent within a group, is most important to the Japanese. Also, organizational loyalty is very important in the Japanese society as well as life-time employment and total respect for superiors. To "lose face" conveys a fate worse than death to the Japanese individual as well as his family.

Negotiating

Perceptions about time influence nonverbal perspectives of business communication. Many countries have different business hours from those in the United States, which is usually from 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. For example, the Japanese arise early. Company employees may exercise together and start the work day about 10:00 a.m. and work until 6 p.m, then they may socialize for another two to four hours as an important part of the business. Also, they work on Saturdays from 10:00 a.m. to 1:00 p.m.

Another time concept difference is evidenced in the decision making process. The Japanese spend more time than Americans in the decision making process and in the negotiating process. American managers may go to Japan expecting a settlement in a week or two; but they will soon find negotiations may continue for several months.

The Japanese tradition is to establish a trusting friendship before conducting serious business. This type of friendship requires time, socializing, and numerous face-to-face contacts. They want to develop a personal relationship, not just a business acquaintance. In many cases, this relationship is more important than the product's qualities.

Silent pauses are a part of Japanese business discussions. The Japanese businessperson may pause as long as 40 seconds. The American businessperson may not pause even 25 seconds. The Americans may not know how to react to such pauses. Americans tend to consider silent pauses as a sign of weakness--not being prepared

with a quick response. But the Japanese use the silence for several purposes--especially as a persuasive tactic. They are trying to get the opponent to think about the business transaction and offer more alternatives, incentives, or perhaps concessions.

Once a business deal has been closed, Japanese businessmen prefer concise contracts, composed generally and vaguely. Because mutual trust esteems higher than a signature, oral agreements are quite common. A written contract should cover the main points but allow flexibility. Formal ceremonies often follow the closing of a large business transaction.

Guidelines to International Communication

To successfully communicate cross-culturally, key areas must be addressed.

Analyze one's own culture. American stereotypes include direct eye-contact, firm handshakes, frequent smiles, limited public touching, and impatience. While these characteristics may be true for people from the United States, the same is not true for people from Japan, Mexico or Germany, for example. Each culture is unique.

Be open to foreign cultures. Mixed emotions will be present, but apprehension can be used in the development of each one's communication skills. Patience and tolerance are essential.

Diligently study other cultures and apply these principles. This is the key! To be successful one must learn the facets of other lifestyles by trying different foods or participating in unique customs. Learn about the people; seek to understand their behavioral and thought patterns. Learn words of courtesy, positive/negative gestures, and greetings. The receivers will appreciate the efforts given to better understand their culture.

Compare and contrast the cultures. By applying what has been gained from prior analyses, employ the best way to bridge the cultural gap. Keep in mind that differences are great, and one's culture does not have absolute dominion over methods and ideas of others.

SUMMARY

Doing business with the Japanese is a skillful art acquired through patience and understanding. One can never hide one's "Western culture," so attempts to blindly copy Japanese methods are destined to fail. Instead, respect the Japanese system, and business communication is sure to flourish.

Instilling Effective Oral Communication Skills

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REGIONAL DIFFERENCES AND BUSINESS STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF VERBAL AND NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS NEEDED FOR BUSINESS SUCCESS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine whether regional differences affected business students' perceptions of the relative importance of selected verbal and nonverbal communication skills. In Spring 1991, 1,565 business communication students completed questionnaires which consisted of 20 items, each with three verbal/nonverbal communication skills taken from a Delphi exercise previously completed by business executives. Students ranked the three skills in each item from 1 (most important) to 3 (least important). The chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic was used to analyze the findings statistically. At least one competency in 8 of the 20 items (or 12 of 60 competencies) was significant at the .05 level based on where students currently live, and at least one competency in 7 of the 20 items (or 10 of 60 competencies) was significant based on where students had lived the longest.

INTRODUCTION

Intercultural communication is an important topic today, and much research has been conducted in this area. Many studies have focused on international differences; however, cultural differences are evident from region to region within the United States. The purpose of this study was to determine whether regional differences affected business students' opinions regarding the relative importance of selected verbal and nonverbal communication skills.

HYPOTHESES

For this study, two hypotheses were tested:

1. No significant difference existed between student rankings of verbal and nonverbal communication skills and region of the United States in which they currently live.

2. No significant difference existed between student rankings of verbal and nonverbal communication skills and region of the United States in which they lived the longest.

METHODOLOGY

After reviewing the results of a Delphi exercise in which business executives rated 139 verbal and nonverbal communication skills as essential, important, or unimportant for business success, a survey instrument was developed to determine business students' perceptions of the relative importance of selected verbal and nonverbal communication competencies. (Business students, for purposes of this study, included individuals who were enrolled in business communication courses in the Spring of 1991 and who were majoring in business.)

Design of Instrument

Approximately 200 business communication students in selected classes at Memphis State University and Delta State University participated in a pilot study. As a result, the questionnaire was refined to include 20 items, each with three verbal/nonverbal communication skills from the Delphi exercise. Students were asked to rank the three skills in each item from one to three (with one representing most important, two representing second most important, and three representing least important).

Student Population

Fifty percent of members included on the Association for Business Communication (ABC) mailing list were selected using a systematic random sampling technique. Then, members whose address reflected their teaching in a nonbusiness area or in another country were eliminated.

As a result, 484 members received letters asking them to administer the student survey in their business communication classes. Of the 260 (54%) respondents, 105 taught business communication and were willing to participate, 23 taught business communication but were unable to participate, and 132 did not teach

business communication at that time. Of those agreeing to participate, 20 were eliminated because of time constraints they stipulated or because they taught courses other than undergraduate business communication courses. Therefore, the sample consisted of 85 business communication instructors who were willing to have students complete the questionnaires in their classes.

A cover letter and the student questionnaire were mailed to the 85 ABC members. They were asked to administer the survey to 30 of their business communication students and return the surveys in an addressed, stamped envelope that was provided. Seventy-two (84%) responded. After unusable questionnaires and questionnaires completed by nonbusiness majors were eliminated, a total of 1,565 questionnaires were analyzed.

Regional Classifications

For purposes of this study, the United States was divided into the four regions (West, Midwest, Northeast, and South) identified in the U.S. Bureau of the Census Map of the United States. States included in each region are as follows:

West	Washington, Oregon, California, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, Alaska, Hawaii
Midwest	North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio
Northeast	Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania
South	Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Tennessee, Kentucky, West Virginia, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Maryland, Delaware, District of Columbia

Statistical Analysis

The chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic was used to determine whether regional differences affected students' opinions of the importance of verbal and nonverbal communication. The alpha level was set at the .05 level of significance; therefore, null hypotheses were rejected when they yielded an alpha of less than .05.

The dependent variable was the students' rankings of the verbal and nonverbal communication competencies from 1 (most important) to 3 (least important); the independent variables were region of the United States where students currently live and region of the United States where students lived the longest.

FINDINGS

Table 1 shows frequencies and percentages of the region of the U.S. where students currently live, and Table 2 indicates frequencies and percentages of the region of the U.S. where students lived the longest. (Some students omitted regional information; therefore, totals do not equal sample size.)

TABLE I
REGION OF U.S. IN WHICH STUDENTS CURRENTLY LIVE

Region	Frequencies	Percentages
West	374	24.0
Midwest	537	34.4
Northeast	189	12.1
South	459	29.4
Total	1,559	99.9

TABLE II
REGION OF U.S. IN WHICH STUDENTS LIVED LONGEST

Region	Frequencies	Percentages
West	325	20.9
Midwest	572	36.7
Northeast	218	14.0
South	442	28.4
Total	1,557	100.0

Chi-Square Statistics

The chi-square statistic showed at least one competency in 8 of the 20 items (or 12 of 60 competencies) significant at the .05 level based on the region where students currently live. In addition, it showed at least one competency in 7 of the 20 items (or 10 of 60 competencies) to be significant at the .05 level based on region of the U.S. in which students had lived the longest. For these items (which follow), the null hypothesis was rejected.

COMPETENCIES FOR WHICH HYPOTHESIS WAS REJECTED

--Arrives on time for meetings and appointments*
--Is a good listener*
--Addresses everyone within a group--not just one or two people*
--Takes blame for own mistakes**
--Answers phone on first or second ring***
--Speaks correctly (grammatically)***
--Speaks effectively (gets message across)***
--Does not make obscene remarks***
--Never drinks from a can or bottle (in a business situation)***
--Applies fragrance sparingly***
--Is considerate and thoughtful of the feelings of others***
--Is honest and ethical***
--Does not gossip***

* Significant "Currently Live"
** Significant "Lived Longest"
*** Significant both "Currently Live" and "Lived Longest"

Regional Differences

The following lists indicate those competencies more important and less important to students who currently live and/or who had lived the longest in the four regions.

COMPETENCIES CONSIDERED MORE IMPORTANT (BY REGION)

Midwest
--Taking blame for own mistakes
--Being considerate and thoughtful of the feelings of others

Northeast
--Being considerate and thoughtful of the feelings of others
--Not gossiping

South
--Being a good listener
--Answering phone on first or second ring
--Speaking correctly (grammatically)
--Not making obscene remarks
--Being honest and ethical

West
--Speaking effectively (getting message across)
--Applying fragrance sparingly

COMPETENCIES CONSIDERED LESS IMPORTANT (BY REGION)

Midwest
--Arriving on time for meetings and appointments
--Answering phone on first or second ring
--Being honest and ethical
--Not gossiping

Northeast
--Addressing everyone within a group
--Taking blame for own mistakes
--Not drinking from can or bottle (in a business situation)
--Applying fragrance sparingly
--Being honest and ethical

South
--Speaking effectively (getting message across)
--Addressing everyone within a group
--Not drinking from can or bottle (in a business situation)
--Being considerate and thoughtful of the feelings of others

West
--Being a good listener
--Speaking correctly (grammatically)
--Not making obscene remarks
--Taking blame for own mistakes
--Not drinking from can or bottle (in a business situation)

SUMMARY/IMPLICATIONS

Students' perception of the relative importance of verbal and nonverbal communication competencies differ somewhat based on the region of the United States. Business communication students, therefore, should be aware of the fact that, not only do people from other nations have different values and mores, but that individuals within the United States do also.

DEMOGRAPHIC AND TRAIT-RELATED CORRELATES OF PUBLIC SPEAKING ANXIETY

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ABSTRACT

A student survey was conducted to determine whether certain demographic and trait data were correlated with self-reported public speaking anxiety. A modified McCroskey instrument was used. A correlation of gender and level of public speaking anxiety was found, with females reporting higher anxiety than males. An inverse relationship was found between level of aerobic exercise and public speaking anxiety; that is, as aerobic activity increased, public speaking anxiety decreased. Further research is needed with a broader student base and to determine whether results indicate causation or whether other factors might be at work.

INTRODUCTION

If one were to conduct a survey of students concerning the least popular topic taught in business communication courses, probably the answer would be public speaking and oral reporting. The very thought of making an oral delivery in front of a group stirs fear and anxiety in many. In order to overcome such fear, more needs to be known about the phenomenon of public speaking anxiety.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem under investigation was a determination of the possible correlation between public speaking anxiety (PSA) and selected demographic and trait variables. The purpose of this study was to identify traits associated with public speaking anxiety. The following research questions were posed:

1. Does a correlation exist between PSA of business communication students and selected demographic variables such as age, gender, geographic location, and major field of study?

2. Does a correlation exist between PSA of business communication students and physical fitness?

3. Does a correlation exist between PSA of business communication students and their dominant hand (handedness)?

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Oral communication is essential for success in many career fields. However, the Book of Lists claims that more people fear giving oral reports than they fear anything else--including snakes (Locker, 1991). A number of research studies have focused on the causes of this public speaking panic. Two theories have been posited in the professional literature; they have been labeled the "state" approach and the "trait" approach (McCroskey, 1977, 79).

State apprehension is ". . .specific to a given oral communication situation, such as giving a particular speech to a group of strangers. . ." (McCroskey, 1977, 79). State apprehension may be context-based; i.e. individuals may fear speaking in one situation but not in all. Other types include audience-based apprehension in which the speaker fears particular members of the audience, and situational apprehension in which the speaker fears delivering an address in a particular setting (Richmond and McCroskey, 1989).

Trait apprehension refers to general dislike of all types of communication due to the individual's inherent personality characteristics. Daly and McCroskey (1984) note that children seem to be born with a predisposition toward certain personality characteristics. For example, an infant who cries when held by strangers may exhibit more fear of public speaking as an adult than would an adult who, as a baby, welcomed attention from strangers. Studies have investigated the effects of variables such as assertiveness and self-esteem on PSA.

An examination of selected studies reveals potential problems regarding conclusions drawn from the reported research. The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension self-administered survey instrument (PRCA), developed by McCroskey, is frequently used to measure the dependent variable of public speaking anxiety. Because the PRCA contains several items which are not directly related to the construct of PSA, any conclusions regarding correlations between PSA and personality or demographic traits seem inconclusive. Additionally, no research studies were located in which athletic activity or handedness were correlated with public speaking anxiety.

METHODOLOGY

Investigation of the correlation between PSA and selected demographic and trait variables included the following activities.

Pilot Survey Instrument

Permission was received from James McCroskey to modify and use his PRCA questionnaire. Items were deleted which were deemed unrelated or nominally related to the construct of PSA, and minor modifications in wording were made to selected items. The pilot survey instrument contained 22 items to which respondents indicated the degree to which each item would make them nervous in a public speaking situation. A demographic questionnaire was also designed.

A convenience sample was selected, consisting of students in three sections of an undergraduate business communication course at a regional Texas university. Sixty-six surveys were returned. SAS Frequencies Procedure and Chi Square Procedure were used to analyze the data. Due to the small sample size, statistical outcomes were inconclusive regarding correlations of PSA with gender, age, geographic area, degree program, and major field of study. However, results indicated possible correlations between public speaking anxiety and athletic ability and public speaking anxiety and handedness. Minor changes were made in the wording of selected items prior to conducting the actual study.

Survey Administration

Survey research was conducted during the 1992 Fall semester at the university involved in the pilot study. A convenience sample was composed of students enrolled in the basic Business Communication classes. The instrument was administered prior to introduction of the oral communications component of the course; 221 completed responses were obtained.

The survey instrument featured two parts. The first asked for demographic data from the respondents such as gender, age, in which of the United States the respondent was born and graduated from high school, field of study, major, participation in sports, and handedness. The second part consisted of 22 "situations" related to public speaking, adapted from McCroskey's PRCA assessment. Respondents were to indicate the extent, on a 1-5 scale, to which each situation would make them nervous.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

A data set was constructed which summarized the information obtained from survey instruments. Statistical analysis included

SAS Frequencies, Correlation, Chi Square, Regression, and ANOVA techniques. Some demographic items exhibited missing data due to ambivalent answers or omissions made by respondents; this resulted in different ns for the various variables.

The SAS Chi Square procedure was utilized to determine differences between expected responses and observed responses for the 22 "situations" in the assessment. Chi square statistics were obtained for the following demographic categorical variables as related to PSA: age, extent of weekly aerobic exercise, participation on an intercollegiate sports team, participation on an intercollegiate sports club, gender, and handedness. Figure 1 summarizes the results.

FIGURE 1

CHI SQUARE STATISTICS FOR DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES PAIRED WITH THE PUBLIC SPEAKING ANXIETY VARIABLE

Demographic Variable	df	Chi Square Value*	Prob.
Age	1	5.777	0.972
Aerobic Exercise	10	19.457	0.035
Intercollegiate Athletics	2	1.466	0.480
Intercollegiate Sports Clubs	4	2.119	0.714
Gender	2	7.910	0.019
Handedness	4	2.029	0.730

df= degrees of freedom
**Chi Square results may be invalid due to cells with expected frequency counts < 5.

As indicated by Figure 1, expected PSA scores significantly differed from observed scores for the Aerobic Exercise and Gender variables.

An additional procedure was performed to further determine the significance of the Aerobic Exercise variable as well as the Age variable. Correlation can be used to measure strength of association between variables measured on interval and ratio scales (Zikmund, 1991). The Pearson Product-Moment Coefficient, labeled r, is the most commonly used measure of correlation. The number that represents the correlation can range from -1.00 to +1.00. "A high positive value represents a high positive relationship; a low positive value, a low positive relationship; a moderate negative value (for example, -0.40, -0.37, -0.52) a moderate negative relationship" (McMillan & Schumacher, 1984, 192). As Figure 2 indicates, r values were generated between PSA and demographic variables measured on interval or ratio scales, namely, Age and AEEX (hours of aerobic exercise per week).

FIGURE 2

PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN
PSA AND SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Variable	r	Prob.
AGE	-0.04508	.5210
AEEX	-0.13780	.0483

A significant inverse correlation was found between the dependent PSA variable and the independent variable AEEX (Aerobic Exercise). Such correlation procedures, however, compare only two variables and do not indicate direction of correlation. Several independent variables may have had a combined effect on the dependent variable of PSA. Multiple regression ". . .allows for the simultaneous investigation of the effect of two or more independent variables on a single interval-scaled dependent variable" (Zikmund, 1991, 563). Thus, stepwise regression was run, using the demographic variables (measured on interval or ratio scales) under consideration in the study. The regression equation measured the linear relationship among PSA, AGE, and AEEX and revealed a probability of .0521.

Since regression analysis is appropriate for analyzing interval or ratio scale data only, one-way analysis of variance procedures were used to test for significant differences in PSA scores between levels of independent variables suited to this analysis. Two-way analysis of variance procedures were conducted which tested for interaction effects among the independent variables of most interest in this study: AEEX, GENDER, and HAND (handedness). As Figure 3 illustrates, one main effect resulted for the GENDER independent variable.

FIGURE 3

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY
FOR PSA, GENDER, AEEX, HAND

Variable	DF	Mean Square	F	P
GENDER	1	4167.8693768	18.24	.0001
AEEX	4	343.1838119	1.50	.2032
HAND	2	144.7530257	0.63	.5319

Analysis of variance only indicates the existence of significant differences between levels of an independent variable; extent of these differences can be determined through a suitable followup procedure. Duncan Followup indicated a mean of 57.919 for

males and a mean of 66.968 for females; thus females tended to score significantly higher on reported public speaking anxiety.

CONCLUSIONS

Further research is needed to identify whether the correlation of aerobic exercise and lower public speaking anxiety indicates causation or whether other factors may be at work. Research is also needed to explore the differences in public speaking anxiety levels among males and females. Preliminary studies of indicate similar confidence levels for young children; it is unclear as to when and why the differences occur. Finally, similar studies need to be conducted with larger samples and in other regions of the country.

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DISTRACTING SPEAKER'S ACTIONS AND HABITS

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ABSTRACT

The intent of this study was to develop an instrument which could be used to detect irritating speaker habits and actions. This instrument then could be used to assist speakers in becoming more aware of their presentation weaknesses and thus be able to improve their presentation effectiveness.

INTRODUCTION

The failure to recognize the importance of how a speech is presented has caused many well written presentations to fall on deaf ears. Many speakers fail because they have not taken the time to understand irritating or distracting habits they may exhibit which interferes in the transmission of the intended message.

Research supports that only 7% of a speaker's meaning is directly related to verbal; while the vast majority of a speaker's meaning (93%) comes from the nonverbal message, i.e. tone, inflection, gestures, eye contact, etc. Perhaps Berlo said it best when he stated: "Meanings are in people, not in words."

With this in mind it is important to understand what to do to support the verbal message and what not to do, eliminating factors which may destroy or erode the intended message. The focus of this study was to investigate and present habits or actions which may distract the listener and interfere with real meaning of the message. For the purpose of this study actions referred to those things a speaker does knowingly, without thinking of the affect on the message; habits referred to things a speaker does which he or she is unconscious and which affect the meaning of the message.

This study produced an evaluation instrument (included in this paper) to help speakers analyze actions or habits they may be guilty of using, thus helping to improve their communication. For it is only when weaknesses are identified, can they be corrected. This instrument also may help listeners be more tolerant of speakers' distracting actions and habits as they realize how easy it is to do something which distracts from the meaning of the message. A similar evaluation instrument was presented by George Henderson in Human Relations on "Irritating Listening Habits" and was used as a model for development.

PROCEDURE

To determine actions and habits which are most distracting and to design the evaluation form for use by a speaker, the following study was conducted.

Approximately fifty students in two upper-level business communication courses used a nominal group process to produce a list of 85 habits which were most irritating to them when observing other students during presentations and professors in lecture intensive classes. Through a frequency ranking this list was narrowed to 50 items.

The final list was combined and redistributed to the students and each student was then asked to use the list to rank the frequency each of these actions or habits were exhibited by their professors during one class period, using a separate form for each professor. Demographic information on each response included the course name and the sex of the professor.

RESULTS

Following the collection of this data, a ranking of the most irritating habits and actions was tabulated. The top ten most irritating habits to students is provided in Table 1.

Ninety-one observations were completed. From these observations we found our professors were certainly guilty of exhibiting some of these actions or habits. The percentage these were exhibited is included in this study in Table 2. This

information provided the knowledge necessary to complete the development of the evaluation form also included in this study.

IMPLICATIONS

This study was an excellent class project which helped students conducting the study become more aware of irritating speaker behavior which may impede the communication process, and certainly could be duplicated for other classes.

The study also could help professors be more conscious of and correct irritating speaker behavior they may use if results were made available to them.

In that there is more interest in teaching effectiveness, the evaluation instrument developed could be used to provide information to improve a professor's teaching.

Table 1

Top Ten Distracting Speaker Habits
(listed from most to least irritating)

1—Rude to audience

2—Not prepared

3—Lack of enthusiasm

4—Talks down to audience

5—Speaker takes confrontational approach with audience

6—Ineffective use of time

7—Monotone

8—Poor grammar

9—No eye contact

10—Off the subject

Table 2

Percentage of Professors Using Distracting Speaker Habits

24%	Beating topic into ground
	No audience participation
	Repetitive routine behavior
23%	Lack of enthusiasm
22%	Ineffective use of time
21%	Eye contact not equally divided
20%	Excessive pacing
	Expressionless
	Rate too fast
19%	Not getting to the point
	Reading material from manuscript or notes
18%	Monotone
16%	Off the subject
15%	Filler words, i.e., uh, you know
14%	Singling people out or putting someone on the spot
	Dressed inappropriately or distracting
13%	Bad posture
12%	Talks down to audience
	Unkempt appearance
11%	Talking to floor, ceiling, chalkboard, or visual
	Irritating accent
10%	Rude to audience
	Not prepared
	Poorly prepared visuals
	Repeating stories
9%	Playing with items in pockets
	Unfamiliar vocabulary or unfamiliar technical jargon
8%	Looking at only one section of audience
	Meek voice
	No body language – soldier stance
	Playing with jewelry
	Swaying or rocking back and forth
7%	Making tapping noises with pen, pointer, foot, etc.
	Speaker takes confrontational approach with audience
5%	Stuttering
	Shuffling note cards or papers
	Playing with hair
	Chewing gum or something in mouth
	Inappropriate or offensive language
	Insincere
4%	Eating in front of audience
	Foot shuffle
	Not allowing feedback or questions from audience
	Sexist language
3%	No eye contact
	Poor grammar
	Smacking,clears throat or other irritating mouth noises
2%	Bad breath
1%	Picking at face
0%	Spits

DISTRACTING SPEAKER ACTIONS

The following is a list of fifty distracting speaker habits or behaviors. Circle the **X** before those actions which irritate you when practiced by others. Circle the **I** before those actions you believe yourself most guilty. You may circle either an **X** or **I**, neither or both before each.

After you complete the above instructions, review the list again and in the blank space provided, rank-order the ten behaviors which are most distracting to you when demonstrated by others (number 1 being the most distracting).

Circle		Rank		
X	I	___	1.	Bad breath
X	I	___	2.	Bad posture
X	I	___	3.	Beats topic into ground
X	I	___	4.	Chews gum or something in mouth
X	I	___	5.	Dresses inappropriately or distractingly
X	I	___	6.	Eye contact not equally divided
X	I	___	7.	Eats in front of audience
X	I	___	8.	Excessive pacing
X	I	___	9.	Expressionless
X	I	___	10.	Foot shuffle
X	I	___	11.	Filler words, e.g., uh, you know
X	I	___	12.	Inappropriate or offensive language
X	I	___	13.	Ineffective use of time
X	I	___	14.	Irritating accent
X	I	___	15.	Insincere
X	I	___	16.	Lack of enthusiasm
X	I	___	17.	Looks at only one section of audience
X	I	___	18.	Makes tapping noises with pen, pointer, foot, etc.
X	I	___	19.	Meek voice
X	I	___	20.	Monotone
X	I	___	21.	No audience participation
X	I	___	22.	No body language — soldier stance
X	I	___	23.	No eye contact
X	I	___	24.	Not allowing feedback or questions from audience
X	I	___	25.	Not getting to the point
X	I	___	26.	Not prepared
X	I	___	27.	Off the subject
X	I	___	28.	Picks at face
X	I	___	29.	Plays with hair
X	I	___	30.	Plays with items in pockets
X	I	___	31.	Plays with jewelry
X	I	___	32.	Poor grammar
X	I	___	33.	Poorly prepared visuals
X	I	___	34.	Rate too fast
X	I	___	35.	Reads material from manuscript or notes
X	I	___	36.	Repeats stories
X	I	___	37.	Repetitive routine behavior
X	I	___	38.	Rude to audience
X	I	___	39.	Sexist language
X	I	___	40.	Shuffles note cards or papers
X	I	___	41.	Singles people out or puts someone on the spot
X	I	___	42.	Smacks, clears throat, or other mouth noises
X	I	___	43.	Takes confrontational approach with audience
X	I	___	44.	Spits
X	I	___	45.	Stutters
X	I	___	46.	Sways or rocks back and forth
X	I	___	47.	Talks down to audience
X	I	___	48.	Talks to floor, ceiling, chalkboard, or visual
X	I	___	49.	Unfamiliar vocabulary or unfamiliar technical jargon
X	I	___	50.	Unkempt appearance

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Discussing Current and Future Communication Issues

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INFORMAL COMMUNICATIONS: OPENING THE WINDOW

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ABSTRACT

The Whetton and Cameron "Intimacy Matrix" is shown to be a conceptual mechanism for expanding the size of the perceived Johari Window which exists in our informal communications, both with groups and with individuals. The communications pattern portrayed by the Matrix correlates with subordinate perceptions of supervisory "supportiveness climate," but the pattern and climate factors do not correlate with perceived performance levels. In work settings it is frequently found that informal communications are limited or blocked. Older concepts such as the Johari Window and the Intimacy Matrix, coupled with the work of Gibb on supportive-defensive work climates, have a place in solving this problem.

DEFINITION

Informal communications are governed more by "perceptions" than by "reality." If people perceive a closed situation, then that is "reality." The motivation to communicate with or confront a boss or a subordinate is often just not there. This may be especially true when performance perceptions are low. Rank and file employees fear loss of job or promotion opportunities if they reveal a weakness through their communications. They perceive that it is better to hide what they believe is the "truth" about their competency. They block communications accordingly. Managers, on the other hand, fear embarrassment over their fallibility and a perceived fear that mistakes on their part cause a lack of employee respect. The result is a two-directional block of informal communications activity and even a loss of will to communicate with others who share a common stake in the organization.

SURMOUNTING THE BLOCK

It becomes vital to open this blockage. The literature is replete with research accounts which extol the positive effect of good communications on organizational outcomes.[1] Managerial motivation to open the channels of informal communications with employees is key to surmounting the block. In this paper, the "Johari Window," advanced in 1955 by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham[2], the "Matrix on Intimacy of Communication," advanced by Whetten and Cameron in 1984[3] and the "Categories of Behavior Characteristic of Supportive and Defensive Climates in Small Groups," advanced by Gibb in 1961[4]--older concepts which may need dusting off--are brought forth and combined to pave steps toward removal of this block. Of particular concern is whether the "Intimacy Matrix" is a proxy for the "open" or "public" pane of the Johari Window, and in fact, a means of "measurement" of the openness of the window. Of further concern is the connectedness between the "window," the "matrix," communications "climate," and perceptions of how well people believe they are doing their job.

THE JOHARI WINDOW

As announced in 1955 by its inventors, Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham, the "Johari Window" is a graphic model of interpersonal awareness. It has been used in industry, by universities and in counseling to show that communications are richer, more authentic, and fuller when its open, or public, arena ("the window of exchange") is larger. Hersey and Blanchard have used the concept to depict <u>leadership</u> personality, as opposed to the broader concept of <u>overall</u> personality or the narrower one of leadership <u>style</u>.[5]

The Johari Window looks like any four-pane window as shown in figure one.

FIGURE ONE
The Johari Window

PUBLIC	BLIND
PRIVATE	UNKNOWN

The area known as the "public" arena is made up of perceptions known by the manager <u>and</u> by the subordinates. This is the window that needs opening. The area known as the "blind" or "hidden" arena is comprised of attitudes and behaviors not known to the leader but known to subordinates. The "private" arena, or

"facade," is known to the leader, but not to the subordinates. The leader may not share these things or the subordinate may not pick these things up from verbal/non-verbal messages of the leader.[6] These directly hamper open communications in the organization. The "unknown" arena is comprised of the many possible observations, reflections, and concepts never arrived at due to sheer lack of the will to communicate.[7]

The two heretofore mentioned processes which shape the configuration of the four arenas are feedback and disclosure. Feedback is the extent to which subordinates are willing to share with a supervisor how he or she is coming across. It is the willingness to be open with the boss and also the leader's ability to read verbal and non-verbal communication from subordinates. Feedback should be sought by the boss.[8] Disclosure is the extent to which leaders are willing to share with subordinates appropriate information about themselves.[9] Bosses should disclose. These two processes should be in balance. If they fall out of balance (all disclosure and little feedback), we have one-way, conceited domination. If they fall out of balance in the opposite direction (all feedback and no disclosure), there is an exploitive mode of communication, with a large "facade."

THE PRESENT RESEARCH

What is proposed in this paper is an ideal state where a large balanced (rectangular) public arena exists (plenty of feedback and disclosure, or an open window). To attain such a balanced arena requires a mechanism for obtaining feedback and a model for offering disclosure which would operate simultaneously. This paper submits that this process can be facilitated by use of Whetten and Cameron's "Matrix" and tested by Gibb's "Supportive-Defensive Climate Model."

THE INTIMACY MATRIX

Interpersonal, informal communications between superiors and subordinates or small groups of subordinates can be built around the Whetten and Cameron matrix, which is shown in Figure Two.[10]

FIGURE TWO
The Intimacy Matrix

		FOCUS ---------->			
TYPE		EXTERNAL	INTERNAL	PERSONAL	RELATIONSHIP
	CLICHES				
	FACTS				
	OPINIONS				
	FEELINGS				

One dimension refers to communication focus (subject). It can be external issues, common group experiences, personal disclosure, and even the specific relationship between manager and employee, itself. The other dimension of the matrix is the type of communication. It ranges from "cliches," which require little communications investment to "facts", which require more investment; to an even larger investment of self, one's "opinion;" and finally, to "feelings," which are the strongest involvement of self as they are emotional and require trust.[11]

This model facilitates a balanced public arena, in that, rather than just calling for simultaneous disclosure and feedback--a big jump for those who have not been communicating effectively--it suggests a more incremental, gradual process of moving from external to group to personal to relationship focuses in communication, while branching from cliches to facts to opinions to feelings as the intimacy is increased. These advancements in depth are specific and theorized as measurable.

For purposes of this paper, a simple quantitative count of cells in the matrix is made to determine the "operative" matrix. Incorporation of only cliches pertaining to external matters would be scored as "1." Opinions pertaining to an internal matter would score "7." Generally, as the operative matrix grows, the score approaches "16" with the vector running from the upper left to the lower right of the matrix.

HYPOTHESES

Test of Hypothesis One

An initial study was conducted to test the parallel between

the Johari Window and the Intimacy Matrix. Results suggest the similarity of the two models and their supporting concepts. Hypothesis One states that there is a significant positive correlation between the perceived size of the Johari "public" pane and the "pattern" of the Intimacy Matrix. The "operative" matrix (pattern) for an initial group of thirty M.B.A. students (early careerists) detailed for "bosses" with whom they report a large, open public arena was statistically larger in size (based upon Chi-square) from that profiled by students for bosses with whom they report a small, rather closed public pane. ($p < .01$) The former group's operative matrix incorporated all the cells of the matrix except the lower right one (relationship feelings) which was not included thirty percent of the time. The latter group's matrix tended to incorporate only the cells bounded by external issues and common group matters, horizontally, and cliches, facts, and opinions, vertically.

Test of Hypothesis Two

A larger study was conducted on a sample of 140 young careerists, each with at least one year of career experience, each seeking an educational credential and desiring upward mobility, to record the size (pattern) of the self-reported perceived "operative matrix" between each individual and his or her immediate "boss." Questionnaires which are taken from the cells of the matrix have been administered via group interviews. Further measurements have been taken of their self-perceived performance levels, ranging from 1 to 5 (very low to very high). In addition to this, each "boss" is scaled as to Gibb's "supportive-defensive" climate factors. These factors have been scaled as shown in Figure Three.[12]

FIGURE THREE
Climate Factors

DEFENSIVE<----------->SUPPORTIVE
Evaluation<----------->Description
Control<----------->Problem Orientation
Strategy<----------->Spontaneity
Neutrality<----------->Empathy
Superiority<----------->Equality
Certainty<----------->Provisionalism

The scales are given individual values ranging from 1 for "defensiveness" to "5" for "supportiveness," and the numbers were

totaled.

Hypothesis Two states that there is a significant, positive correlation between the perceived "operative matrix" (pattern) and perceived support received from the supervisor (supportiveness of climate, or climate). Hypothesis Three asserts that there is a positive and significant correlation between both pattern and climate variables and self-performance perceptions.

Findings on Hypotheses Two and Three

Hypothesis Two--a significant correlation between the operative intimacy matrix (pattern) and perceived supervisory supportiveness (climate)--is partially supported:

	CLIMATE	r	r^2	t	F-Ratio	Probability
PATTERN		.45	.20	5.90	34.78	<.05

There is a linear relationship between climate and pattern. Mean score for pattern is 23, S.D. = 6.86. Possible maximum was 32. Climate mean score is 19, S.D. = 5.50 Possible maximum was 30.

Hypothesis three--a significant correlation between both size (pattern) of the operative matrix and perceived supervisory supportiveness (climate) and subordinate performance perceptions (performance) is not supported:

Using individual regression analysis, the following is reported:

	PERFORMANCE	r	r^2	t	F-Ratio	Probability
PATTERN		.13	.02	1.58	2.5	.116

The correlation is not significant. Performance mean score is 26 out of a possible 30.

	PERFORMANCE	r	r^2	t	F-Ratio	Probability
CLIMATE		.06	.01	0.74	.56	.456

This correlation is not significant as well.

Using multiple regression analysis with pattern and climate as independent variables, and performance as the dependent variable, the overall result, as expected, is not significant:

	PERFORMANCE	r	r^2	t	F-Ratio	Probability
CLIMATE/PATTERN		.12	.02	1.39	1.24	.292

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Two hypotheses are supported: the Intimacy Matrix from Whetton and Cameron does appear to be a potential proxy for the Johari Window open pane, and in fact, appears to be an incremental way to open that pane. The Matrix pattern does correlate with the supervisor's "climate" of supportiveness, and since that pattern "can be built," would hence be a plausible way to improve that climate. However, a correlation between informal communications pattern and supervisory climate, on the one hand, and self-performance perceptions, is not evidenced. This is, of course, a pilot, tentative finding. The errors in measurement, sample size, and statistical distortions prohibit a firm conclusion. However, it appears that pattern and climate are NOT affected by, nor do they affect, overall performance perceptions. Consequently, Whetton and Cameron's "Intimacy Matrix" is recommended as a means of obtaining an open communications window and building a more supportive communications climate, but not as a means of improving employee performance perceptions. The Johari Window, itself, was popular during the human relations movement of the 1960's and 1970's and is not in vogue anymore.[13] But the problem of developing open, authentic communications is still around and there still is a place for these concepts as part of the solution.

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IMPROVING WORD ORIGINATING SKILLS IN THE COMPUTERIZED OFFICE: A SPECIALIZED COMMUNICATION COURSE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT PERSONNEL AND THEIR MANAGERS

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ABSTRACT

Business educators must combine the best conventional principles of communication with new technology as they teach originating skills to administrative support personnel and their managers. Computers are changing how these workers and their managers compose and originate communications.

The roles and duties of managers are more like those of administrative support personnel; the functions and responsibilities of support personnel are more like the duties of managers. For both, efficient composition and origination of communications are vital challenges.

Educators also face challenges as they implement AACSB curriculum standard C.1.2.c requiring that the curriculum include written and oral communications. This renewed emphasis is on the "how of business communication"...not the "what or the why."

NEEDS AND PURPOSES

The primary purpose of this paper is to present a proposed communication course to meet the specialized needs of business educators, support personnel, and executives in originating communications. A secondary purpose is to develop a specialized course to meet the needs of non-traditional students as they seek training in post-secondary and collegiate schools. Another purpose is to encourage change--an evolution, not a revolution--in the word originating processes used in the computerized office.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A review of the literature confirms the challenges and changes that educators, support personnel, and their managers face in the business environment. In communication skills, procedures for document origination are changing because of innovations in education and the workforce.

Changing Roles of Administrative Support Personnel and Managers

The role of support personnel in American business has changed, at times dramatically. An "office administrator" composes and originates communications, writes reports, attends important meetings, and performs what a decade ago would have been considered managerial communication tasks (Chesanow, New Woman, p.89).

Increases in the responsibilities and duties of these workers is a direct result of management philosophies of the 1980s which forced everyone to do more. "In corporate America, middle management has been virtually eliminated. A great deal of pressure has been put on administrative support personnel to pick up the slack." (Chesanow, p. 89).

Changes in Duties of Administrative Support Personnel

The office today is more of a direction center than a dictation center. In 1960, Noyes reported the changing role of support personnel and described them as a part of the management team because of their duties. Noyes recommended that communication and mental skills be emphasized in the collegiate secretarial curriculum (Noyes, The Role of the Executive Secretary as a Member of Management).

In Lee's 1970 study, the support personnel listed letter composition as one of their most important assignments (Lee, Personality Characteristics and Job Satisfactions of Certified Professional Secretaries and Non-Certified Secretaries). Similarly, in the 1992 Lee/Pearce study, the office administrators listed composing at their personal computer as the most-used origination skill (Lee/Pearce, A Comparison of Top-Level Administrative Support Personnel and Their Duties for 1970 and 1992).

These studies reveal the evolving duties of support personnel are more related to originating communications and using mental skills than to performing mechanical skills or taking dictation.

Changes and Challenges in Courses and Curriculums--AACSB

In April, 1991, the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) approved new standards and procedures for business and accounting accreditation. The new emphasis in the AACSB curriculum is the "how of business communication"...not the "what or the why." The course outlined in this study fits into this AACSB "how to" qualification for effective written communications.

Challenges and Changes in Higher Education

The jobs in Workforce 2000 will require a higher level of skills and education than ever before. The fastest growing support jobs will require more communication, language, and mental skills. Personnel will need additional training for creative decision-making, communication, and human relations. Post-secondary, college, and university educators have the responsibilities of providing information and developing practical skills in word origination for both the traditional as well as the non-traditional student to meet the needs of today's computerized offices.

Changes in Origination Techniques of Executives

Many managers still prefer to originate their communications by writing their letters in longhand. For example, the Lee/Moore study found that of the mid- and top-level executives surveyed concerning word origination:

41% Handwrite and forward to a secretary for typing
26% Type and edit on a PC/WP program
16% Dictate communications to a secretary
11% Dictate communications to a machine
6% Type; delegate to secretary or junior executive; tell secretary what to write, etc.

The 26 percent of executives who used their computer/word processor for composing and originating expressed a need for a communication course which covers techniques in recording and/or transcribing machine dictation, composing at the computer, and originating skills (Lee/Moore, What Universities Can Do To Upgrade Originating Skills in the Computerized Office).

Changes in Origination Techniques of Support Personnel

In the 1970 study of support personnel (Lee), all participants were able to take dictation at a minimum of 120 words per minute. However, these administrative assistants did not list taking and transcribing dictation as a primary responsibility. They used their manager's handwritten notes as a means of origination--either by choice or necessity.

Although the majority of participants in the 1992 Lee/Pearce study preferred originating their correspondence at the computer, they commented that they felt they lacked the composing and communication skills necessary to do their best job. However, 46 percent of them had taken communication courses and 76 percent of those who had completed at least one communication course found it to be helpful or essential. Nearly 37 percent of them had taken managerial courses.

The respondents were familiar with current automation and technology. They responded to the question, "What technology has been implemented in your job?" as follows: more than 97 percent used computers; fax machines, 92 percent; voice mail, 41 percent; local area networking, 43 percent.

The participants had computers and skills which they used effectively. However, they felt that they needed additional instruction in fusing their communication skills and computing skills effectively.

In addition to the questions about communications and technological skills, they were asked: "What communication skill(s) do you use most?" Their replies indicated that almost 45 percent used listening skills most; 34 percent used writing skills most; 38 percent used speaking skills most; only 20 percent used reading skills most. In summary, listening skills were used most; speaking and writing followed closely.

DEVELOPING THE COURSE

The methods used to develop the course to implement word originating skills in the computerized office for support personnel and their managers were:

1. Review of the literature
   a. Changes in roles
   b. Changes in duties
   c. Changes in Workforce 2000
   d. Changes in AACSB curriculums
   e. Changes in origination skills in communications

2. Analysis of Questionnaires--1970 and 1992
   Comparison of support personnel

3. Analysis of AACSB requirements

4. Review of courses and curriculums in ABC colleges and universities to find offerings concerning originating communications

5. Study opinions of educators concerning changes in originating communications

CONTENTS OF COURSE

The specialized communication course for administrative support personnel and their managers, "Improving Originating Skills in the Computerized Office," will combine principles of business communications, managerial communications, oral and written communication skills--listening, speaking, reading and writing. Word processing, computing skills, dictating skills, etc. will also be a part of this course for business people in today's offices and in Workforce 2000.

Four chapters on traditional principles of business communications will be included. These chapters will emphasize writing skills.

Chapters on speaking, reading, and listening will also be incorporated. Listening skills will be emphasized in two chapters as the most-used but least-taught communication skill. Effective listening techniques, barriers to listening skills, and improving listening skills will be included. The other chapter will be devoted to listening strategies--"The How-To Chapter on Effective Listening as a Communication Skill."

Because of the need expressed by support personnel and their managers, two chapters on dictation and transcription will be included. One chapter will concern the W's of dictation---Who, What, When, Why, and Where. The other chapter will emphasize effective dictation techniques.

The management chapter will emphasize managerial communications. Several chapters on composing at the computer, effective communication layout and style, and using software will meet the needs of support workers who are learning to originate at the computer. Final chapters will present the changing technology of business communications, network communication, using advanced dictation techniques, human relations, etc.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Business educators continue to play an integral part in the planning and implementing of changes in the workforce. Moreover, business relies on the education system for qualified, competent people to fill office administration support and executive positions.

Business communication experts can use the personal computer, traditional and innovative communication skills to improve the manner in which words and communications are originated by support personnel and their managers in today's offices and in Workforce 2000.

Educators, support personnel, and their executives can build foundations of cooperation, respect, and understanding as together they learn to wordsmith for improved performance and productivity. The proposed course, "Improving Word Originating Skills in the Computerized Office," will help all business persons meet these challenges.

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COMPENSATION AND CONTRIBUTING COMPENSATION FACTORS OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION FACULTY

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ABSTRACT

Employees are quite concerned about their compensation and how their salaries relate to fellow employees and to individuals performing the same job for different employers. Because business communication faculty have these same concerns about their salaries, this study was to investigate the compensation as well as contributing compensation factors of business communication faculty in the southwest region.

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

Typically, the amount of pay a person receives is a personal and sensitive issue. Employees, however, are quite concerned about compensation and see it as one of the single most important factors of a job; compensation is considered as having a significant effect on employee attitudes and on-the-job performance (Leap and Crino, 1989). Employees are also interested in how their salaries relate to fellow employees and to individuals performing the same job for different employers.

Business communication faculty are typical employees, and they also have these same thoughts and concerns about their salaries. To answer these concerns, they may look at salary studies published annually by The Chronicle of Higher Education and AACSB.

However, looking at these published salaries may not provide faculty with a "true picture" of fellow faculty's salaries. In The Chronicle's study, business communication is not a separate and distinct discipline, and business communication faculty are not listed individually. In addition, the salaries presented in The Chronicle and AACSB are based on nationwide data and are not broken down into regions, which would present a more reliable comparison. Consequently, when administrators need to make decisions about salaries for business communication faculty, they may not always

have a valid and reliable salary structure from which to work. Thus, the purpose of this study was to investigate the compensation as well as contributing compensation factors of business communication faculty in the southwest region.

PROCEDURES

A Survey Network optically read questionnaire was designed to ascertain faculty demographics, salary, duties/responsibilities, and perceptions on salary equity. The sample for this survey, mailed on January 14, 1993, was the 1992 membership of the Association for Business Communication Southwest Region which includes some members who live outside the southwest region. Of the 96 members that were surveyed, 64 usable questionnaires were returned, representing a 67% response rate. The totalled responses provided a summary of faculty rank and gender, the type and size of institution, department and college in which the business communication course is taught, highest degree earned, college from which the degree was earned, and faculty compensation. Participants also provided information indicating their understanding of compensation at their respective institutions. A cross-tab analysis, using chi-square (.05 level) was used in analyzing the findings for significant differences.

FINDINGS

Fifty-six of the sixty-four respondents were teaching business communication courses, including basic business communication, managerial communication, and report writing). Most of the respondents (23) were professors; 18 were associate professors; 12 were assistant professors; 2 were instructors; and 1 was a department head. Thirty-seven respondents were female and eighteen were male. Of the 56 institutions, 3 were private and 53 were public. Following are the tabulations and summarizations of the topics that were addressed.

1. **Type of institution at which respondents taught:**

Type of Institution	Frequency	Percentage
Comprehensive University	40	71%
Doctoral Granting University	6	11
Research University	5	9
Liberal Arts College	5	5
Two-Year Institution	2	4
	56	100%

2. **Number of students attending the institutions:**

Number of Students	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 5,000	5	9%
5,001 to 10,000	14	25
10,001 to 15,000	16	28
15,001 to 20,000	9	16
20,001 to 25,000	10	18
More than 25,000	2	4
	56	100%

3. **Department in which business communication is taught:**

Department	Frequency	Percentage
Admin. Services/Office Systems	19	34%
Management	11	20
Information/Office Systems	8	14
Other*	8	14
Business Administration	6	11
Business Communication	3	5
Speech/Communication	1	2
	56	100%

*Business Education & Office Administration, General Business, General Business & Finance, General Business & Systems Management, Vocational Education, CIS/Administrative Services, Management Science & Information Systems, and Technical Communication.

4. **College in which business communication is taught:**

College	Frequency	Percentage
Business	53	94.6%
Education	1	1.8
Liberal Arts	1	1.8
Other	1	1.8
	56	100.0%

As shown in these four tabulations, the majority (71%) of ABC--Southwest Division business communication courses are being taught in comprehensive universities. More than half of the institutions (53%) have between 5,001 and 15,000 students. The Administrative Services/Office Systems (34%) and Management (20%) Departments were the most frequently mentioned departments in which the course is taught. In addition, most of the other departments mentioned are business-related. Consistent with the department findings, the majority of respondents (94.6%) identified business as the college where business communication courses are taught.

Chi-square analysis showed no significant difference in salary compared by the type of institution; a significant

difference in salary compared by the number of students at the institution; and no significant difference in salary compared by the department or college in which business communication is taught.

5. **The highest degree earned:**

Degree	Frequency	Percentage
Ph.D.	27	48.2%
Ed.D.	20	35.7
M.Ed./M.S.E.	3	5.3
ABD/Ph.D.	2	3.6
Other (ED.S. & ABD/D.B.A.)	2	3.6
M.A.	1	1.8
M.B.A.	1	1.8
	56	100.0%

6. **College from which highest degree was earned:**

College	Frequency	Percentage
Education	35	63.6%
Business	11	20.0
Liberal Arts	7	12.7
Other (Bus. Ed. & Bus. Com.)	2	3.6
	55	99.9%

7. **Salary by rank for the academic year (frequency and percentage:**

Salary	Instructor		Assistant Professor		Associate Professor		Professor		Other*	
$20,001 - $25,000	1	50%								
$25,001 - $30,000	1	50								
$30,001 - $35,000			5	38%						
$35,001 - $40,000			7	54	5	28%	1	5%		
$40,001 - $45,000					6	33	2	9	1	100%
$45,001 - $50,000			1	8	5	28	7	32		
$50,001 - $55,000					2	11	3	14		
$55,001 - $60,000							2	9		
$60,001 - $65,000							1	5		
$65,001 - $70,000							4	18		
$Over $70,000							2	9		
	2	100%	13	100%	18	100%	22	101%	1	100%

*Department Head

8. **Salary by gender:**

Salary	Male		Female	
$20,001 - $25,000			1	3%
$25,001 - $30,000			1	3
$30,001 - $35,000			5	14
$35,001 - $40,000	2	10%	11	30
$40,001 - $45,000	2	10	7	19
$45,001 - $50,000	6	32	7	19
$50,001 - $55,000	3	16	2	5
$55,001 - $60,000			2	5
$60,001 - $65,000			1	3
$65,001 - $70,000	4	21		
$Over $70,000	2	10		
	19	99%	37	101%

The analysis comparing salary by the highest degree earned indicated a significant difference. A significant difference was also found when comparing salary by academic rank and when comparing salary by gender. Analysis of salary by the college from which the highest degree was earned revealed no significant difference.

In addition to teaching, 14 respondents had compensated administrative duties. However, a cross-tab analysis of salary per academic year by compensated administrative duties showed no significant difference.

9. **Understanding of compensation and procedures at the institutions:**

	Yes	No	Don't Know
My institution has a standardized pay schedule for all faculty.	13	40	2
Salaries at my institution are equitable.	7	41	7
My salary is higher than faculty of same rank.	21	25	7
Low salaries have caused business communication faculty to leave.	10	34	10
My university has established procedures for allocating raises to faculty.	32	16	7
I am aware of the procedures used at my institution for allocating raises.	40	10	4
The procedure used to allocate raises at my institution is fair.	20	24	9
I believe my salary is satisfactory.	26	26	1

Although these are only a few of the questionnaire statements and responses, it is interesting to note that most respondents do not believe salaries at their institutions are equitable, yet they were evenly divided on their salary being satisfactory.

The participants were also asked to identify the bases for raises at their institutions. Respondents indicated that research was the main basis for raises; teaching was second; and service was third. Some of the "other" bases were publishing, influence, and tolerance.

CONCLUSIONS

From this information, business communication faculty will have a better understanding of how their salaries relate to salaries of faculty from other institutions in the southwest region. Also, administrators will have more information from which to structure salaries for business communication faculty.

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Integrating Ethics into Business Communication Curriculum

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THE STATUS OF ETHICS INSTRUCTION IN AACSB ACCREDITED COLLEGES OF BUSINESS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to obtain information on the current practices and future plans among AACSB colleges of business concerning the teaching of business ethics in the undergraduate business curriculum. A questionnaire was sent to Deans of AACSB accredited colleges of business.

Seventy-nine percent of the respondents indicated that the study of business ethics was required for all business majors. Infusion of the study of business ethics into the business core courses was the most prevailing method for teaching business ethics. Legal Environment and Business Policy were the courses most frequently mentioned as courses used for infusion of business ethics into the business curriculum.

INTRODUCTION

The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business' standards have recently been revised to require the teaching of ethics within the business common body of knowledge curriculum. No doubt, the study of business ethics is being emphasized because of the highly publicized ethics scandals that have occurred in recent years. The AACSB standards on business ethics are not prescriptive, leaving how compliance is achieved to the individual schools.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to obtain information on the current practices and future plans among AACSB colleges of business concerning the teaching of business ethics in the undergraduate business curriculum. This study examined:

1. the opinions of deans on whether business ethics should and can be taught in the undergraduate business curricula,
2. how AACSB schools are presently complying with the standard on the teaching of ethics,
3. the identification of the course or courses which contain ethical considerations,
4. the identification of approaches used in teaching ethical concepts,
5. the identification of faculty qualifications/training needed to qualify to teach business ethics,
6. the identification of faculty development programs used to enhance the teaching of business ethics, and
7. the considerations in the faculty reward system for incorporating business ethics into business courses.

STUDY RESULTS

A questionnaire was sent to Deans of AACSB accredited Schools of Business. Of the 269 questionnaires mailed, 121 were returned for a response rate of 45 percent. Ninety-six (79 percent) were public institutions, while 25 (21 percent) were private schools.

Respondents were asked if business ethics instruction was included in their undergraduate business curriculum. One hundred three (85 percent) responded "yes" and 18 (15 percent) responded "no".

Those respondents who included ethics instruction were asked if the study of business ethics was <u>required</u> for all business majors. Seventy-nine of the 103 (77 percent) indicated "yes"; however 18 (18 percent) responded "no", and 6 did not respond. It is surprising that 18 percent of those AACSB accredited schools responding do not require the study of business ethics.

Respondents were asked how business ethics was incorporated into their business curriculum. Forty-eight (47 percent) indicated that a stand-alone course was used to teach business ethics.

Infusion of the study of business ethics into the business core courses was the most prevailing method for teaching business ethics. Seventy-eight (76 percent) of those schools teaching business ethics integrated it into the business core. The courses employed by these schools to support teaching topics in ethics are indicated in Table 1 on page 3.

Table 1

INTEGRATION OF BUSINESS ETHICS INTO BUSINESS CORE

Core Course	N*	%
Legal Environment	74	95
Business Policy	69	89
Accounting	57	73
Marketing	57	73
Organizational Behavior	54	68
Finance	42	56
Economics	23	30
Operations Management	15	19
Communication	12	15

N* = 78

Legal Environment and Business Policy were the courses most frequently mentioned as courses used for infusion of business ethics into the business core curriculum.

Respondents were asked if they anticipated any changes in the way business ethics was integrated into the business curriculum. Thirty-eight (37 percent) of those responding indicated that there would be changes; fifty-three (51 percent) did not anticipate change, while twelve (12 percent) were undecided.

How valuable is undergraduate business ethics instruction? Ninety-nine percent of the respondents who have ethics in the business curriculum indicated that the study of business ethics was "very valuable" or "valuable." Only one percent believe there was "little value" in the study of business ethics.

Respondents that were teaching ethics were asked to rate their college of business undergraduate instruction in business ethics. The results are shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2

RATING OF BUSINESS ETHICS INSTRUCTION

Response	N	%
Outstanding	6	6
Very good	35	34
Good	44	43
Fair	15	15
Poor	2	2
No opinion	1	1
Total	103	

How would you rate your business faculty qualifications to teach business ethics. Ninety-five (92 percent) of the respondents believe that their faculty were "very qualified" or "qualified" to teach business ethics. Only eight percent chose "not qualified".

The 95 respondents who indicated that the faculty were "very qualified" or "qualified" were asked how they became "very qualified" or "qualified" to teach business ethics. The results are indicated in Table 3.

TABLE 3

HOW FACULTY ACQUIRE QUALIFICATIONS TO TEACH BUSINESS ETHICS

Response	N	%
Self development	72	76
Seminars/workshops	58	61
Professional meetings	54	57
Formal training	53	56
In-house faculty development	24	25
Other	8	8

As shown in Table 3, most respondents had to become qualified to teach business ethics "on their own". Only 56 percent had formal training in teaching business ethics.

Respondents were asked if any consideration was given in the faculty reward system for incorporating business ethics into courses. An overwhelming 77 percent of those responding indicated "no" consideration was given, while 15 percent did give some consideration. Nine percent did not respond to the question. The consequences of no faculty rewards for teaching business ethics will no doubt slow down the effort to incorporate business ethics into the curriculum.

Do other disciplines contribute to your business majors' understanding of ethics? Seventy-one percent indicated other disciplines did contribute to the understanding of ethics; eleven percent indicate other disciplines do not contribute to understanding ethics and sixteen percent were undecided and 3 percent did not respond.

Of those respondents indicating other disciplines did contribute to the understanding of ethics, 70 percent indicated that the discipline that contributed most was philosophy.

The 103 respondents teaching business ethics were asked to indicate which methods/materials were used in teaching business ethics. The results are shown on Table 4 on page 5.

TABLE 4

METHODS AND MATERIALS USED IN TEACHING BUSINESS ETHICS

Method	N	%
Case Studies	85	83
Discussions	85	83
Lectures	82	80
Textbook Reading	63	61
Audio/Visual Material	59	57
Guest Speakers	53	51
Current Events	51	50
Student Term Papers	43	42
Student Presentation	41	40
Group Projects	38	37
Role Playing	28	27
Debates	16	16
Panel Discussion	13	13

The data in Table 5 reveal the value that respondents placed on each of the methods/materials.

TABLE 5

VALUE OF VARIOUS TEACHING METHODS/MATERIALS
(Number Responding)

Method/ Material	Very Valuable	Valuable	Little Value	No Value	Undecided
Lecture	15	60	12	0	0
Case Studies	55	39	10	0	0
Discussion	52	29	1	0	0
Audio/Visual Material	27	37	2	0	2
Group Project	18	24	4	0	1
Student Presentation	16	33	6	0	2
Student Term Papers	15	35	5	0	4
Textbook Reading	14	46	13	0	1
Guest Speakers	31	27	1	0	3
Business Simulation	8	15	3	0	5
Debates	10	15	4	0	5
Current Events	27	31	2	0	1
Panel Discussion	10	15	5	0	5
Role Playing	21	20	2	0	3

As Table 5 reveals, case studies and discussion are considered to be the most valuable in teaching business ethics. Even though lectures were one of the most used methods, many respondents did not believe that the lecture was of great value.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

A study was conducted to determine the current practices and future plans among AACSB colleges of business concerning the teaching of business ethics in the undergraduate business curriculum. A questionnaire was mailed to 269 deans of AACSB accredited colleges of business. A total of 121 questionnaires were returned.

One hundred three (85 percent) respondents indicated that business ethics was included in their undergraduate business curriculum. However, it is surprising that 15 percent of the respondents did not include the study of business ethics even though AACSB standards requires the study of business ethics.

Infusion of the study of business ethics into the business core courses was the most prevailing method for teaching business ethics.

Ninety-nine percent of the respondents who have ethics in the business curriculum indicated that the study of business ethics was "very valuable" or "valuable".

Respondents that were teaching business ethics were asked to rate their college of business undergraduate instruction in business ethics. Forty percent rated the instruction as "outstanding" or "very good". However, 43 percent of the respondents rated the instruction as only "good". Thus, it would appear as though college of business could certainly improve their instruction in business ethics.

The most prevailing methods used in teaching business ethics are case studies, discussions, and lectures. Even though lectures was one of the most used methods many respondents did not believe that the lectures were of great value in teaching business ethics.

Where Should We Go from Here? Some Research Questions for Business Communication Ethics

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ABSTRACT

This paper categorizes studies of business communication ethics and lists questions to guide future research.

ETHICS AND BUSINESS ETHICS

Scholars divide ethics into three areas, descriptive ethics, normative ethics, and metaethics (DeGeorge, 1990, pp. 14-16). Descriptive ethics focuses on behaviors and beliefs. Normative ethics attempts to develop and to defend a moral standard or system. Metaethics includes the analysis and synthesis of normative ethics and deals with the meaning of moral terms and the logic of moral reasoning. The three areas can be arrayed along a continuum from more to less empirical. As shown in Figure 1, descriptive ethics resembles the social sciences in focusing on descriptions of human behavior. Normative ethics resembles those disciplines that conduct careful, reasoned evaluations of human behavior and experience. Metaethics most closely resembles logic, philosophy, or theology.

The relevance of ethical concepts to business ethics has been clarified by Fleming who, in 1987, published a survey (cf. Kahn, 1990), of "the cutting edge of research" (1987, p. 2).

FIGURE I

Descriptive	Normative	Metaethics
(more empirical)		(more symbolic)
anthropology	rhetoric	logic
history	literature	philosophy
social psychology		theology
sociology		

Fleming concluded that research in each area uses a variety of methods. Descriptive research may range from quantitative to qualitative and uses research techniques such as experiments, surveys, and other social science methods. Normative ethics explicates and evaluates judgments concerning practices or principles. The preeminent research method, critical thinking receives special attention in the liberal arts. A successful normative project identifies a practice or principle as right or wrong and offers a well-reasoned defense of the value claim. Metaethics critically evaluates normative ethics by examining underlying presuppositions and reasoning patterns. Research tools include symbolic logic and other aids to rigorous thought.

Delineation of the three traditional areas of ethics, and consideration of the research methods appropriate to each, suggests that business communication scholars should focus primarily on descriptive and normative ethics. Metaethics research frequently requires special training in ethics or philosophy. Descriptive and normative ethics, on the other hand, are properly conducted with a variety of historical, quantitative, and literary research tools.

A SURVEY OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION ETHICS RESEARCH

A recent literature survey (Reinsch, 1990) identified 35 business communication ethics papers that had previously appeared in the Journal of Business Communication (JBC); the Bulletin of the Association for Business Communication (Bulletin); the annual proceedings of the Association for Business Communication (ABC); or the annual proceedings of the Association for Business Communication, Southwest Region (ABCSW).

I expanded the previous data base (Reinsch, 1990) in several ways. First, in response to Donaldson's (1992) work noting that ethical issues can be expressed in different vocabularies, I reexamined papers located but not categorized by Reinsch (1990) and added four of them to the analysis. Second, I brought the data base up to date by surveying: JBC issues 26(2) through 29(4), Bulletin issues 52(1) through 55(2), ABC proceedings for 1989 through 1991, and ABCSW proceedings for 1989 through 1992. Finally, I included Management Communication Quarterly (MCQ) issues 1(1) thorough 6(2), and the Journal of Business and Technical Communication (JBTC) issues 1(1) through 7(1). These procedures identified 66 papers that focused on ethics.

All 66 papers were categorized in two ways. First, each was categorized as pedagogical or not. Second, each paper was categorized as descriptive or normative. Only the paper by Lewis and Speck (1990) seemed to consider metaethics. The categoriza-

tions were sometimes difficult because a particular paper seemed to have both descriptive and normative elements. In fact, most of the normative papers could be described as "prenormative." They approach normative issues and, in some cases, state some of the authors' normative conclusions. But few papers directly and self-consciously articulate normative claims (cf. Hall & Nelson, 1990).

Results are summarized in Table 1. As shown, 34 papers (52 percent) were categorized as pedagogical and 32 (48 percent) as nonpedagogical; 43 (65 percent) were categorized as descriptive and 23 (35 percent) as normative.

QUESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The preceding analysis provides a snapshot of the ethics research found in the business communication literature.

Descriptive Pedagogical

The 21 papers categorized as descriptive, pedagogical papers focus on instructional methods and practices. In general they advocate enhancing student awareness through case studies and class discussions. Impressive recent additions to the literature include papers by Barbour (1990), Harcourt (1990), Shaw (1992), Speck (1990), and Spencer and Lehman (1990). Several specific educational issues are also addressed: Chaney (1991) provides some initial data concerning student ethics; and Gibson and Hodgetts (1989) provide the first empirical data concerning the classroom practices of business communication educators. The papers provide a good deal of instructional material for business communication educators, and the papers by Chaney (1991) and by Gibson and Hodgetts (1989) initiate important research topics. But the research provides little information about educational practices and even less about student learning or educational effectiveness. Many of the most basic pedagogical questions have not yet been explored, and potential questions for further research include:

1. What are students' business communication ethical standards (cf. Chaney, 1991)? How were the standards learned?
2. What methods of business communication ethics instruction are now being used (cf. Gibson & Hodgetts, 1989)?
3. Do the instructional methods work? How well?
4. What ethical prescriptions have business communication textbooks historically offered and how were the prescriptions justified (cf. Gibson & Hodgetts, 1989)?

We have assembled a tool kit of instructional techniques but we are only beginning to ask fundamental questions about the values or attitudes we are trying to affect, the effectiveness of our tools, or the ethical principles implicit in our textbooks and instructional materials.

TABLE I
Studies Sorted by Category

Categories	Pedagogical	Nonpedagogical
Descriptive	Barbour, 1990	Clipson & Young, 1989
	Barton, 1990	Dosier & Munilla, 1988
	Chaney, 1991	Gilsdorf, 1986
	Clary, 1989	Harder, 1960
	Fielden, 1958	Hay 1982
	Gibson & Hodgetts, 1989	Konovsky & Jaster, 1988
	Golen et al., 1985	Lewis & Reinsch, 1981
	Harcourt, 1990	Lewis & Reinsch, 1983
	Hunter, 1977	Lewis & Williams, 1979
	Motwani et al., 1990	Murdock & Leipzig, 1987
	Motwani et al., 1991	Page, 1984
	Murphy, 1959	Pettit & Vaught, 1979
	O'Neill, 1980	Pettit et al., 1990
	Penrose et al., 1986	Reinsch, 1989
	Shaw, 1992	Reinsch, 1990
	Smeltzer et al., 1986	Rogers & Swales, 1990
	Speck, 1990	Royal, 1973
	Speck & Porter, 1990	Shanklin, 1975
	Spencer & Lehman, 1990	Sigband, 1974
	Waltman, 1980	Treece, 1987
	Weinrauch & Matejka,1973	Varner, 1979
	n=21 (32 percent)	Williams, 1977
		n=22 (33 percent)
Normative	Garver, 1985	Bateman, 1977
	Goodrich, 1958	Crow, 1988
	Griffin, 1960	Dauten, 1964
	Hall & Nelson, 1990	Kallendorf & Kallendorf, 1989
	Hambrick, 1958	
	Hunter, 1990	Lewis & Speck, 1990
	Jacobi, 1990	Lewis & Timmerman, 1985
	Krohn, 1985	Mowrer, 1964
	McGuire, 1980	Pearce et al., 1989
	Rentz & Debs, 1987	Sarachek, 1964
	Russell, 1993	Sarachek, 1965
	Speck, 1989	n=10 (15 percent)
	Zorn & Rosenfeld, 1989	
	n=13 (20 percent)	

Normative Pedagogical

The 13 papers categorized as normative, pedagogical papers argue that business communication teachers should be concerned with ethics since business communication is unavoidably moral. Russell (1993) offers impressive arguments for developing internal (rather than external) critiques of the professional disciplines and for treating students with respect.

The papers in the normative pedagogical category affirm that ethics has a place in the business communication classroom but they differ in the reasons offered as justification. Also, with a few exceptions (for example, Jacobi, 1990; Zorn & Rosenfeld, 1989) they do not argue for particular approaches or specific content. A number of questions might, therefore, serve as foci for future research.

1. Are the various arguments which have been offered in favor of ethics instruction in business communication complementary? Are they comprehensive? Sound? Compelling?
2. What ethical positions should be included as content in business communication ethics instruction? Why?
3. Which instructional practices are morally right or wrong? What instructional philosophy should guide ethics instruction? What instructional techniques are consistent with the guiding principles? (See Russell, 1993.)
4. What specific ethical issues ought to be addressed in a course on business writing, business speaking, or managerial communication? Why?

Some of these questions receive partial, implicit answers in the descriptive pedagogical literature and partial, explicit answers in the normative pedagogical research. But in general, scholars have argued that we should include ethics in the business communication course, but have not moved on to tougher questions about what ethical principles should be taught.

Descriptive Nonpedagogical

The 22 descriptive, nonpedagogical papers have addressed a tremendous variety of issues. Unfortunately, most of the research has not been programmatic and few conclusions can be drawn with certainty. And since the small, and frequently atomistic, body of descriptive research does not exhaust any research topic, many research topics need more attention. Some examples of potential research questions include:

1. What ethical dilemmas are recognized (and how are they resolved?) by CEO's? By managers? By information handlers such as secretaries and word processing specialists?
2. How frequent does immoral business communication occur? What circumstances or characteristics predict or cause it?
3. What ethical principles guide organizations in the preparation of company literature such as recruiting brochures, orientation manuals, and annual reports?
4. How do individuals rationalize immoral business communication practices (cf. Konovsky & Jaster, 1988)?

Normative Nonpedagogical

Ten papers were categorized as normative, nonpedagogical research, as attempting to offer an evaluation of moral behavior or a prescriptive model. But the papers do not reveal a single

example of a fully articulated, comprehensive statement of ethical standards in business communication.

Research in the normative ethics area seems especially desirable for two reasons. First, business communication presumably includes--in comparison to other business disciplines--a relatively large percentage of persons trained in methodologies (such as critical analyses of verbal behavior) appropriate for normative research. Second, normative analysis of business communication seems particularly important and provocative. In many business ethics issues the flash point involves some form of communication or information flow (for example, bluffing during negotiations, insider trading, use of internal research reports, employee handbooks, "sealed" bidding). In short, normative research would seem to fit the research skills of the business communication community, and to be a particularly important field for business academics and practitioners.

Potentially fruitful avenues for normative research are numerous. Several that could prove to be particularly interesting are:

1. What moral principles should guide a writer? A speaker? A reader? A listener?
2. Are rhetorical strategies (for example, indirect refusals, persuasive attempts) ethical? Under what circumstances, if any, might they be unethical?
3. Should ABC establish professional standards to guide practitioners as they confront moral dilemmas? If so, what should the standards be?
4. To what extent should business communication absorb its ethical standards from business? From academic disciplines?

Business communication scholars should give more attention to the task of developing coherent, comprehensive, and appropriate normative systems. Such systems should be tested in scholarly debate and in the business world.

CONCLUSION

Communication scholars have shown a persistent interest in ethics by conducting research. But, as this paper demonstrates, many important questions have been neglected. We need programmatic research directed at fundamental questions.

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A list of references is available from the author (Georgetown School of Business; Georgetown University; Washington, DC 20057).

Implementing Innovative Instruction in Business Communication Classes

VITAL COMMUNICATION TOOLS IN BUSINESSES: BUSINESS STUDENT INTERNSHIP PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT

One vital avenue for communication between business organizations and Collegiate Schools of Business is through business internship programs. Often, the question arises whether a College of Business Administration (COBA) at a university should enter into a cooperative program with business establishments to provide an internship program for COBA students. This study provides background information, opinions of AACSB Deans, results of a business community interest and support survey, and guidelines for universities considering the feasibility of such an endeavor.

INTRODUCTION

Communication in business involves communication with many audiences including the organization itself, other organizations, employees, customers and clients, governmental agencies, and the community. One vital avenue for communication between business organizations and Collegiate Schools of Business is through business internship programs.

Corporations are looking among candidates concentrating in business administration for the best communicators (Carlson & Wetherbe, 1989). Colleges of Business Administration (COBA) need to develop "people skills" in their graduates so they may become viable, "people-oriented," business support staffers, not just technical staffers. Some executives suggest that internship participation may be an answer (Stokes, 1989).

As the United States enters an age of international business competition, a priority for American business persons will be to communicate effectively with people from other cultures. Internship

programs allow American students to gain this experience by working with companies engaged in international business (Moore, 1991).

Business student internships provide solutions for both students and the business community (Moore, 1991). Through paid work experiences, internships not only make college education affordable, but also, prepare students for existing and future jobs. Students are able to apply their knowledge to current technology. Businesses can hire interns at lower costs than they could hire regular employees, and businesses gain knowledge of good potential employees.

Often, the question arises whether a College of Business Administration at a university should enter into a cooperative program with businesses to provide an internship program for COBA students. This study provides information and guidelines for universities considering the feasibility of such an endeavor.

OPINIONS OF AACSB DEANS

According to a recent study, the Deans of Collegiate Schools of Business accredited by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) believe that student internship programs help provide the nation with a capable work force. In addition, internship experiences complement academic programs, providing "value added" learning experiences and communication competencies that cannot be obtained elsewhere (Spinks & Wells, 1991, November 29).

In summary, this study indicated that internships provide greater crystallization of professional self-concept and work ethics and help in making career choices. Students experience less "reality shock" on their first jobs. The prospect for on-the-job training, including organizational communication, attracts many students into internship programs, according to the Deans.

Internship programs develop decision-making abilities, sensitivities to political realities, and abilities to motivate others. Internship programs enhance interpersonal relations skills and interns better understand the value of good communication skills, according to the AACSB Deans.

The Deans felt that internship programs help the business community and the university to realize the strengths and weaknesses of each other. Business faculty members gain valuable insights into the business arena, and businesses gain knowledge of good potential employees who will need little or no additional training. Businesses also get work produced at lower costs than they could by hiring regular employees. A majority of businesses

that employ interns seemingly benefit through the exposure to the expertise of the university faculty.

A major benefit of internships to students is that these experiences afford opportunities for solving business problems. Internships provide exposure to management communication strategies in cultures that are different from those of the interns.

The AACSB Deans surveyed believe that orientations for interns acquaint them with organizational structures and communication networks of participating businesses. These orientation experiences also provide interns with avenues for understanding their employers' interactions with public and private organizations. In addition, these experiences communicate that interns are parts of the professional staffs of participating organizations.

Most interns are placed in positions where they complete "special projects" that may not be completed if interns were not present. They usually are placed in positions that correspond to their academic training, and receive balanced experiences because they are scheduled to work in several areas of participating companies. Interns are allowed to participate in, as well as to observe, the operations and communication activities of participating organizations as interns usually participate in staff meetings of their companies. Interns are urged to request advice from and to exchange ideas with other employees. They also have responsibilities to assist fellow trainees and to serve as role models for future interns, according to the Deans.

The "best and brightest" students are attracted to COBA internship programs. Businesspersons who recruit on campuses regard students with internship field experiences higher than those without these experiences. Capable students are attracted to Colleges of Business Administration by business internship programs; therefore, these programs serve as good recruiting tools.

Business student internship programs provide a vital communication link between classroom experiences and actual job requirements. The Deans of AACSB Accredited Colleges of Business Administration with internship programs support overwhelmingly their programs [98%]. They also highly recommend internship programs for all Colleges of Business Administration where these programs are feasible [93%], (Spinks & Wells, 1991).

COMMUNITY INTEREST AND SUPPORT SURVEY

A COBA internship program needs the firm support from the business community to succeed. The College of Business

Administration in a medium-size state university and the local Chamber of Commerce conducted a survey of local business establishments that were members of the Chamber to determine the availability of internship positions. A questionnaire was mailed to these businesses and one hundred twenty-four completed questionnaires were returned. The following conclusions were made from the results of the survey.

MAJOR CONCLUSIONS

Sixty-one responding businesses indicated that they could provide work positions for COBA student interns, and thirty-three businesses said they could possibly provide positions. The responding businesses could accommodate approximately one hundred sixty-four interns in wide varieties of jobs.

The responding businesses preferred interns majoring in Accounting, Marketing/Marketing Research, *Business Communication/Public Relations,* Computer Information Systems, Administrative Office Systems, Management, and Finance (listed in descending order of preference). The respondents indicated that most positions available were in Accounting, Computer Operations/Programming, Marketing/Marketing Research, Management Information Systems, Management, and *Business Communication/Public Relations*.

The need for interns was about evenly distributed among Fall, Spring, and Summer semesters. Interns could be used for a wide variety of hours each week; however, most interns would be needed for six to twenty hours. The need was about evenly distributed among afternoons, mornings, and all day, followed by weekends, and flexible times.

Most businesses would pay interns minimum wage or higher. Other indications of compensation were as follows: Negotiable, none, uncertain, commission, and in-kind payments.

Thirteen businesses indicated that they could provide interns with exposure to international trade or finance, and fifteen said that they possibly could, also. Eighty of the respondents were willing to provide student interns with wide varieties of activities necessary for satisfactory internship experiences, and eighty were willing to work with the Internship Director to plan experiences and to guide and evaluate interns.

The responding businesses classified themselves in twelve of the Standard Industrial Classifications, the most common being Service, Mining/Oil, Retail Trade, Manufacturing, and Financial. No respondents were classified in Agriculture nor Forestry.

FIFTEEN RECOMMENDED GUIDELINES

To establish a successful, smooth operating business internship program in a Collegiate School of Business Administration, the researchers recommend the following guidelines:

1. Select a director for the internship program from the current COBA faculty. The director should receive compensation in the form of extra pay and released teaching time, should be independent of departments, should report directly to the COBA Dean, and should assume the responsibility of implementing the internship program.

2. Select a COBA Faculty Steering Committee to develop an implementation plan with the director. The committee's duties would end with the successful implementation of the program.

3. Select a COBA Internship Advisory Committee with a rotating membership for the purpose of giving continued direction and support for the internship program. All departments should be represented on equitable bases.

4. Form a Business and Industry Advisory Committee with a rotating membership for the purpose of giving continued direction and support to the internship program. All sectors of the business community involved in the internship program should be represented on equitable bases.

5. Develop comprehensive, overall guidelines for the internship program. These guidelines should be developed by the Faculty Steering Committee and the director.

6. Develop guidelines for a *work position* to qualify for the internship program. These guidelines should be developed by the Faculty Steering Committee and the director.

7. Develop guidelines for the *internship experience*. These guidelines should be developed by the Faculty Steering Committee and the director.

8. Develop guidelines for *evaluating* interns. These guidelines should be developed by the Faculty Steering Committee and the director.

9. Develop a plan for evaluating internship positions and experiences. The plan should be developed by the Faculty Steering Committee and the director.

10. Develop a plan for evaluating the entire COBA internship program. The plan should be developed by the Faculty Steering Committee and the director.

11. Develop an agreement (contract) for businesses providing internship positions. The agreement should be developed by the director and the Faculty Steering Committee.

12. Develop an agreement (contract) for students participating in the internship program. The agreement should be developed by the director and the Faculty Steering Committee.

13. Develop a course proposal for appropriate university curriculum committees. A recommended proposal is as follows:

BADM 3XX-4XX. INTERNSHIP IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION I, II. Supervised work experience in the area of business administration as approved by the Business Internship Program office. To be used by all Business Administration Departments as business electives. Prerequisites: Junior Status; 2.5 GPA.

14. Enlist businesses to provide appropriate internship positions. This task should be completed by the director.

15. Advertise the internship program to COBA students. This task should be completed by the director, the Dean, department chairs, and student advisors.

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"IF THE SHOE FITS...": EXAMINING THE COMMUNICATION AUDIT AS A PEDAGOGICAL TOOL

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ABSTRACT

The author presents justification for using the communication audit as a pedagogical tool. Developed in the 1970's as a comprehensive instrument to measure an organization's communication, the audit easily adapts to business communication, organizational communication, or managerial communication classes. The author reviews the audit's instrumentation, presents pedagogical benefits, and discusses several limitations. Various approaches to handling costs are also addressed. Instructor, student and organizational benefits outweigh the additional classroom time demands that the audit creates.

INTRODUCTION

For those of us who teach college or university students, attempting innovative ways of classroom instruction creates additional time demands in the classroom. Innovations do not fit readily in an already crowded and changing curriculum. One approach I've found provides instructors with an innovative technique of teaching students about how communication works in "live" organizations, and its benefits outweigh the additional time pressures it creates.

Educators and consultants alike recognize the original purpose of the International Communication Association audit as a comprehensive tool to assess organizational communication. According to Downs (1988), the communication audit is "merely a

process of exploring, examining, monitoring, or evaluating communication in an organization" (p.3). The audit can be viewed as the systems analysis of an organization's communication. The audit's instruments, developed over eight years during the 1970's, have been nationally standardized (Goldhaber & Rogers, 1979). Extensive validation information was also reported by Goldhaber & Rogers (1979). When employing the audit with a class, students actually spend time on-site in an organization diagnosing the communication. On-site diagnosis easily allows the professor to adapt the audit to business communication, organizational communication, or managerial communication classes.

The audit is widely used today by business communication consultants and instructors. For example, Walther (1988) recently reported on communication satisfaction in a bank. Harcourt, Richerson and Wattier (1991) surveyed the quality of communication of middle managers. Results from numerous audits have been reported at professional meetings, and applications of the audit have been extended to nonprofit organizations and churches (Pfeiffer, A. L., VanRheenen D. D., and Lowry D. N., 1990)

To examine pedagogy of the audit and its "fit" in the classroom, this paper first reviews audit benefits for instructors and students, the audit's instrumentation, and use of the audit in an organizational communication classroom. After this review, some pedagogical limitations of the audit are discussed. Does the shoe fit? It certainly does. As the growing popularity of the audit with graduate and undergraduate classes attests, employing the audit in the classroom provides numerous benefits for instructors and students despite added time demands.

Benefits

The communication audit benefits instructors and students in several ways. For inexperienced students, the audit provides access into the "real" world. These students learn how communication works in actual organizations, where practice sometimes contrasts with theory. For experienced students, an in-depth practical study of an organization's written and verbal communications improves their knowledge and skill. All students benefit

from the in-depth group project involving collaborative writing, teamwork, and development of group skills.

Another benefit occurs from building positive university and community relationships. When the organization benefits from an audit, the university supplies a professional service, not just to the organization, but to the community. Developing positive community relations emerges as a prominent theme in the use of the audit as a pedagogical tool. Departments make invaluable contacts with outside agencies and community relationships are developed. Thus, the communication audit, skillfully implemented, provides a valid instructional strategy for instructors and students.

Finally, a communication audit not only benefits instructors and students, and develops positive community relationships, but also the organization involved. Downs (1988) lists numerous organizational benefits: (1) verification of facts (managers perceptions of communication are validated), (2) diagnosis (communication strengths, weaknesses, needs and areas of concern are identified), (3) feedback, (4) communication awareness and (5) training. Although the audit is new to most managers and organizations, effective managers already will have an informal understanding of how well communication works in their organization. The communication audit formalizes their informal understanding, and objectively reveals other areas of which they are unaware. When introduced to an audit, supervisory personnel readily see the need for a communication diagnosis.

Instrumentation

Other sources review the audit instrumentation in detail (Goldhaber and Rogers, 1979; Downs, 1988). Downs (1988) provides actual examples of audit instruments, such as interview guides and questionnaires, which can be adapted by the instructor for use in his or her class. After the audit was developed originally, it comprised five primary instruments: Interviews, questionnaires, critical incident reports, diaries, and network analyses (Goldhaber and Rogers, 1979). Although the interview and questionnaire are familiar research tools to most instructors, the audit's questionnaire is uniquely designed and validated for organizations. According to Downs (1988), the

questionnaire's unique advantage is its comprehensiveness. It is multidimensional, targets communication specifically, and its 122+ questions cover eight major areas common to most organizations. Downs (1988) gives data gathering techniques and detailed information about each of the five instruments.

Using the Audit in the Classroom

Whether your particular course concerns business or organizational communication, corporate communication, or managerial communication, certain obvious content areas must be covered by the end of the term. When employing the audit, these content areas can still be covered during normal class time. The audit may be assigned as a team project in addition to the subject matter, or as a complement to subject matter. As much in-class time as the instructor deems necessary can be allocated to the audit project. Some classes are formed *entirely* around the audit and all class time is spent in audit preparation and discussion. Other classes may conduct a modified version of the audit, using little class time for assessment and analysis. Not a simulation, the focus of the audit may be on written communication, supervisor/subordinate relationships, communication satisfaction, or networking based on the needs or desires of the particular organization.

Many times clients will contact the instructor or department about communication assessments. If not, students can be assigned the task of initiating and making their own contacts, or "selling" the audit, with outside organizations. At other times the instructor makes contacts with clients and directs students toward the organization. Individual strategies must be adapted to class time available and individual course goals. Downs (1988) discusses in detail steps in client contact and follow-up, audit preparation, administration, analysis and interpretation and reporting.

A sample course syllabus is available from the author. The syllabus states a course description, gives course objectives, shows grading criteria, and lists a tentative schedule or time line used in an organizational communication course. The course outline covers a 14 week semester and incorporates as its primary text Gerald Goldhaber's *Organizational Communication*.

The class meets weekly in the evenings for almost three hours. Some class time is devoted to audit preparation and discussion, particularly at the beginning of the semester, but most class time centers on course content.

Costs

When auditing larger organizations, operating costs may become a factor for either instructor or students. Operating costs may include printing and paper costs for various audit instruments, computer time for data analysis, travel, telephone and other necessary expenses. Several approaches may be taken to cover these costs. First, the department in which the class is taught may simply bear the total costs of the audit. Questionnaires are printed on departmental or university equipment, university computers are used, and travel costs are borne by the students and instructor. Second, the university and company mutually share costs. The company may be charged a minimal amount, based on ability to pay. Currently, in our class, we have adopted this second approach. Companies usually cover all photocopying and printing costs (the final report is bound and copied by the company using its own logo), while the class carries most of the other costs. Since instructor and students represent the university, salary and compensation are not an expense (the class provides a service to the company). In the final approach, the company may total costs.

The instructor should determine which cost approach will work best for a particular class. When making initial contact with an organization, the budget can be negotiated. Downs (1988) suggests the budget be negotiated during the planning phase when formalizing audit arrangements. The budget should also include company costs, such as time away from the job for employees during interviews and questionnaire completion.

Pedagogical Limitations

When the audit was developed in the 1970's, bullish projections were made about the audit's use as an assessment tool of organizational communication and its applications to various organizations. Extensive validity and reliability studies were conducted with its instruments, and the audit was nationally

standardized. A nationwide data bank served as a clearinghouse for auditors throughout the country to compare their audit's data to a national standard. The future was bright (Goldhaber and Rogers, 1979).

Yet to the initial user, the instrumentation did not seem to match prolific expectations. The instrumentation became somewhat controversial (Downs, 1988, p. 108). Currently, an updated national data bank is no longer maintained, only regional ones. Critics voiced dissatisfaction over the audit's lengthy instruments, complex terms, and perception-based, self-report surveys. In fact, according to the critics, the instrument's length and time consumption, which interfered with an organization's workings, did not outweigh the benefits. More recently, the audit's popularity has grown. The controversy seems to have refined its use and application. Despite these limitations with audit instrumentation, pedagogical benefits outweigh their costs.

For the classroom, time and operating costs emerge as greatest limitations. Instructors inexperienced with audits will experience the greatest time demands. Downs (1988) text, however, contains clear, practical guidelines for initiating an audit. These guidelines should be followed when beginning communication audits in organizations.

Conclusion

Instructors and students, including the audited organization, receive a wide range of benefits when the audit is employed through the classroom. Students, under the guidance of the professor who serves as a facilitator or director, gain practical understanding of organizational and business communication theory through the use of the audit. Their contact with outside, "live" organizations generates interest and understanding among students. Students begin to discern between what is presented in a textbook and what exists is the "real" world. They form their own assessments of what communication is like. Since the audit is a theoretically grounded instrument, validated through national use, students are able to test and apply theories. Thus, the communication audit provides an innovative vehicle for instructors who wish to give students out-of-class experience

with communication in business organizations, educational institutions, or governmental agencies.

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VOICE RECOGNITION SYSTEMS: STATUS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

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ABSTRACT

Our society has progressed from an agrarian society to an information-based society. The advent of computers has certainly changed the way we communicate, how we communicate, and how we process our messages and information. Numerous technological advances have revolutionized the total business communication concept and the ways in which business is conducted. Since technology has become an integral part of communication, the technology used to create the message is just as important as the message itself. This paper presents an overview of the progression of information processing methods, the impact of computer technology--VOICE RECOGNITION SYSTEMS--its status and implications, a diagram of voice recognition systems, hardware/software requirements, and its impact on the business communication curriculum. It also includes suggestions for integrating voice recognition software in business communication or business writing.

INTRODUCTION

Our society is constantly changing. We have progressed from carving messages on stone tablets or tree barks, to sending human messengers on foot or horseback, to using the quill pen and paper, the telephone, the fountain pen and paper, the typewriter, the dictating machine, the microcomputer, the fax machine, the electronic bulletin board or electronic mail, to digital telecommunication networks, and now to voice recognition systems. These technologies make our society more information-based than ever. We see evidences of these technological advancements in our homes and in the workplaces. Technological improvements help make

our world smaller and our communications move faster, farther, and to more people.

Communications Age

The information society or the communications age has emerged. The use of computers to process our business communications is a standard, expected competency for today's prospective business graduates as members of Work Force 2000. The technological changes have influenced how we input, create, store, manipulate, distribute, control, and manage information.

Companies are purchasing technological equipment that will automate the processing of information in order to save on salary expense. Students will have to think and input quickly while operating computer-based communication systems. In other words, today's graduates will need the ability to use technology to input their messages as well as to access such technology to get information. The white-collar and pink-color work force usually commands a significantly large portion of the payroll costs; any segment of this size will definitely need to enhance its productivity and decrease costs. American industry must use every possible tool to increase its productivity, improve quality, and sharpen its competitive edge.

Voice Recognition Technology

The dream of converting speech to text is evidenced in voice recognition technology; it is now a reality! Voice recognition is the automated process of accurately converting voice (speech) to text. It virtually permits the user to speak into a headset microphone connected to a computer with voice recognition software and the speech (text) appear on the screen; this text can be printed out later on command. Voice recognition software works in conjunction with word processing software or other application software programs.

Voice recognition systems seem to offer great potential for speeding up the creation phase of document production by eliminating the need for keyboarding initial drafts. Voice recognition systems all the user to bypass the keyboard, pencil, and the transcriber. Sperry Corporation reported a 56 percent increase in voice recognition (a segment of artificial intelligence) from 1983 to 1990. The U. S. market for voice recognition hardware and software will surpass $100 million in 1991 which is up from $50 million in 1990. A big factor in the growth of voice recognition programs is the fact that these programs can now be run on powerful desktop computers. So far, the biggest market has been for systems that replace the keying in of data by hand. While voice recognition

systems can address the needs of people who are unable to keyboard, it also offers a promising alternative to keyboarding for able-bodied persons. Some users of voice recognition systems software include physicians, radiologists, business executives, postal workers, and a few professors.

Current literature still reports that many business executives and some students still prefer the pen and paper for originating documents. We need to teach today's prospective business graduates to use technology to increase their productivity and marketability. We as instructors must also show our knowledge as well as our usage of current technology. With the increasing demand for effective communication skills in businesses, it is time for business communication instructors to integrate technology into the business writing course--either as input devices and/or as hands-on exposure or experience.

Business communication has changed. We must take leadership roles in designing curricula to prepare students to become productive professionals. Business students need preparation for voice recognition technology; business communication classes should include learning activities to help students learn to use current technology.

Two Boston-area companies, Dragon Systems, Inc. and Kurweil Applied Intelligence, Inc. are the farthest along in voice recognition systems software. IBM also has a voice recognition system called VoiceType which recognizes 7,000 words at a cost of $2,300. Its original cost in 1991 was $7,200 according to a Los Angeles Times' article. Its requirements are the same as those listed below except for 6 megabytes of RAM and 5 megabytes of extended memory.

Since the author has actually used DragonDictate (produced by Dragon Systems, Inc.) and has a video of herself using this voice recognition system software with WordPerfect, a more detailed listing of hardware and software needs follow:

1. DragonDictate has the ability to recognize 30,000 words at a cost of approximately $4,300 as of March 1993. Its original cost in 1990 was $9,000 according to the Star-News' article.

2. DragonDictate requires an Intel 80386 microcomputer with 20, 25, or 33 megahertz

3. MS-DOS

4. 10 megabytes of hard disk space

5. 5-1/4 high density drive or 3-1/2 disk drive

6. Full size expansion slot for speech recognition board

7. 8 megabytes of RAM

8. A printer

9. A monitor

10. A word processing software package

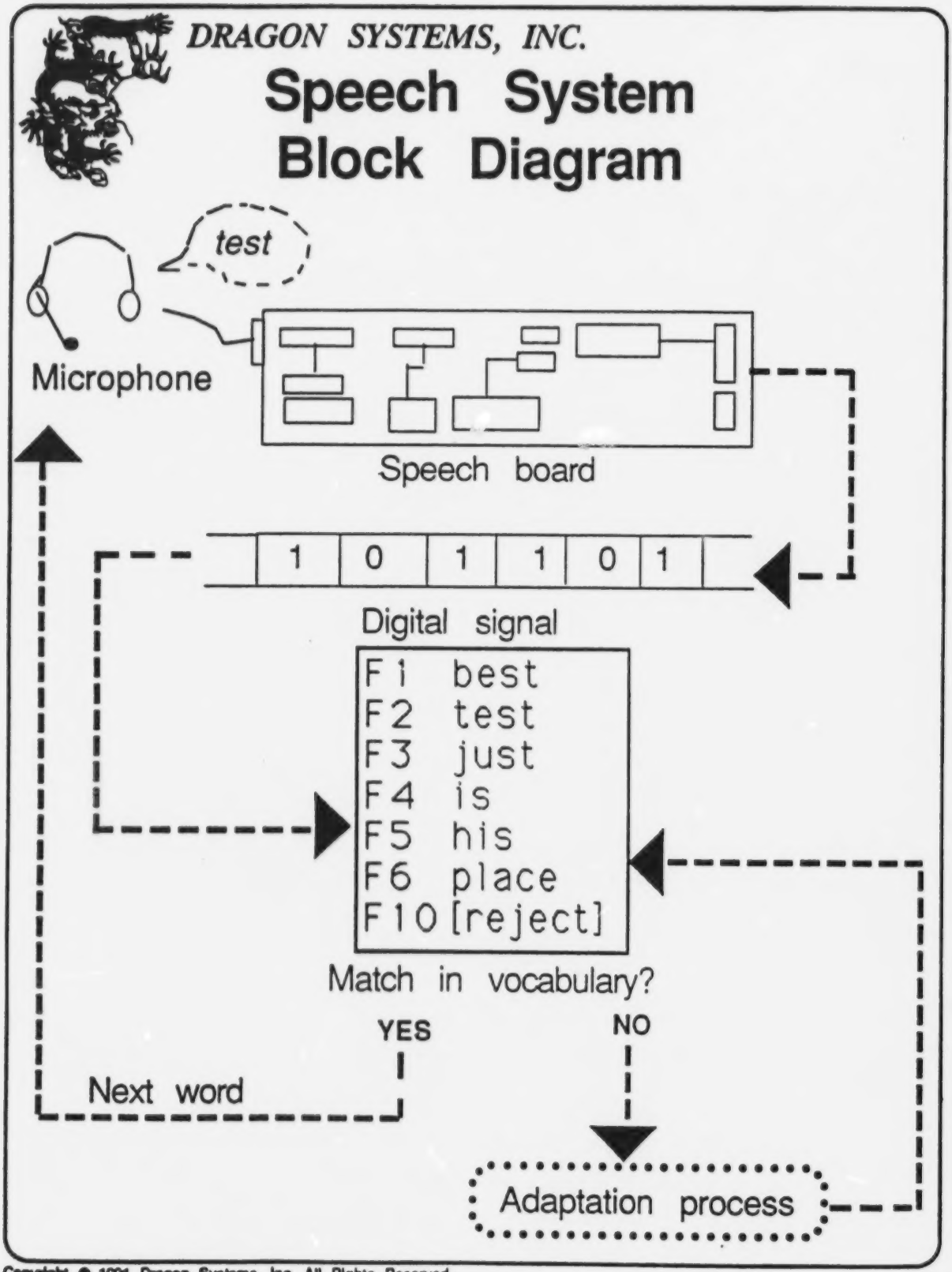
Applications of voice/speech recognition include command/control, data entry/retrieval, and dictation. It should be noted that efficient typists would not be productive using voice recognition software just yet because the average number of words spoken (and the text appear on the screen) is approximately 35 words per minute. Of course, the use of macros could increase this number.

DragonDictate voice recognition "knows" 30,000 words and adapts to individual voices, where previous systems could recognize no more than 5,000 words. DragonDictate lets users create memos, letters, reports, and other documents by speaking into a microphone. The DragonDictate speech system block diagram is included for an overview of the dictation process. (The Match in Vocabulary and the Adaptation processes are presented.)

In the adaptation process, if there is no match in the internal vocabulary, the user can type in the word(s) or add the word(s) to the internal vocabulary by spelling the word (Begin Spell Mode) using the international alphabet--a for alpha, b for bravo, c for charlie, etc. and (End Spell Mode). A mistake is corrected by saying "oops" and repeating the correct word; if a pop-up menu (list of word choices) appears, the user simply says "choose 2" (F2 test) or "choose 10" (F10 reject). Of course, the user has to first familiarize the speech board system with her or his voice patterns by simply dictating a document.

Considerations or Drawbacks

In using voice recognition systems, the system must be trained to speaker's nuances--vocabulary, intonation, accent, etc. It takes numerous hours to gather sufficient voice samples from each speaker. The user may have to spend 15 to 24 hours or more to become acquainted with the system and to become efficient at dictating (there is a slight delay once the word is uttered to when it appears on the screen). If the user is not familiar with using a word processing software package, it will require even more hours to use the voice recognition system software. Users must bear in mind that not one of the voice recognition systems on the market commercially today can understand large vocabularies or naturally



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paced speech from any person, but this technology is continuously being refined.

Speaker-dependent voice recognition systems are dependent on a particular individual's voice; speaker-independent voice recognition systems can recognize the words spoken by any user. The voiceprint is as unique as a fingerprint!

Impact on Teaching Business Communication

While we all know that speaking and writing are not the same, dictation can be creative and allow for quick processing of ideas and information. Naturally, effective dictation skill is needed. Some form of dictation practice should be included in the business communication or business writing course. Perhaps having students dictate a printed letter or memo or a report (for an advanced business communication course) into a tape recorder and/or then having them dictate a response to the letter or memo would give them some exposure to dictation skill. They could turn in the cassette tape for extra credit or this could be a graded assignment. They should be instructed to play back the tape to listen to their own voice patterns, etc. The dictation should be clear, audible, and complete in details.

A number of skills and abilities surface when one is faced with using voice recognition system software; they are presented below:

1. Quick thinking skills (pop-up menus appear; a quick decision by the user is needed for efficiency)

2. Knowledge of document formats (the user has to tell the system the spacing in documents)

3. Quick editing skills (the user must be able to the spot error(s) at the time it is made so time is not wasted having to back track)

4. Efficient proofreading skills (paper waste occurs if the user is not proficient at proofreading)

5. Basic punctuation skills (the user has to dictate all punctuation needed in the document)

6. Excellent spelling ability (the user must be proficient in spelling to gain maximum efficiency at using the system software)

7. Quick memory (the user has to say the same word or group of words the same each time--consistency is paramount)

8. Analytical skills (the user must be adept at quickly critiquing the document for format, content, etc.)

9. Patience (the user has to get use to "talking" to a computer; also the user will literally have to slow down his or her rate of speaking in using the system for now)

10. Detailmindedness (the user needs contextual skills as well as quick accuracy skills)

To reach maximum efficiency with using voice recognition system software, it may require 20 hours or more. As such, this software may not be readily integrated in the classroom; however, a video tape is available that would provide students some exposure to this software. Perhaps instructors can write a grant to solicit funds to add voice recognition system software to their school or university's software acquisitions or to request the purchase of it. In any event, business communication instructors should try to learn how to operate voice recognition system software and perhaps make a video tape of themselves using it to show to their classes.

The author is not promoting any voice recognition system software over another; however, she was most intriqued and excited at having learned to use DragonDictate voice recognition system software since it has the largest vocabulary so far. This software will be used in the School of Business and Economics at California State University, Los Angeles in its forthcoming Presentation and Design Center.

Summary

Voice recognition systems software is being lauded as the computer interface of the 21st Century, and it is ten years early. This promises to be one of the best alternatives to keyboarding documents. It behooves each business educator to prepare our students for Work Force 2000 by exposing them to voice recognition systems software--which is what I call voice writing for the year 2000. The engine of progress in the 21st Century will be the "application" of technology.

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Determining Effective Communication Skills

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COMMUNICATION SKILLS NEEDED FOR EMPLOYEE SUCCESS DURING THE FIRST FIVE YEARS OF EMPLOYMENT

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ABSTRACT

A study of employers to determine the importance of communication skills needed by college graduates during their first five years of employment revealed eight skills as being Very Important: Presenting ideas clearly and concisely, using correct grammar, writing business letters, listening to others' ideas and instructions, speaking on the telephone, asking appropriate questions, taking constructive criticism, and giving constructive criticism. The study also found four communication skills to be Not Important: Writing formal reports longer than ten pages, using E-mail, giving speeches to groups larger than fifty people, and constructing questionnaires. These findings provide business communication professors with up-to-date information that will assist them as they review course content to ensure relevance and timeliness.

INTRODUCTION

The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business has issued new curriculum mandates for its accredited institutions that are causing many colleges of business to review their curricula and the required and elective courses. The regulations now require that 50 percent of a student's coursework be taken in the business college and 50 percent be taken in colleges other than business.

The basic business communication course, taught as a business offering, is undergoing review in many colleges as a result of the AACSB requirements. In some schools, discussion is focusing on a variety of options, which include

1. Eliminating business communication as a business course.
2. Offering the business communication course through the English department.

3. Changing the course content substantially so that the course becomes an upper-level managerial communication class.

Professors who teach business communication in the college of business are certainly concerned about these possibilities. They know the value of their course and can cite research studies that present employers' and graduates' statements concerning this value. However, college administrators are often not aware of such evidence. Furthermore, they might not be familiar with the communication skills that students develop through business communication coursework nor with the strategies used to perfect such skills.

Therefore, any studies that provide additional evidence that communication skills are necessary for student success in the workplace can help business communication professors emphasize the importance of their courses. Such studies can also help professors review and revise course content so that it is up to date and relevant.

Both national studies and regional studies are useful. National investigations provide a more global approach, while regional studies focus on information that is more pertinent to the local business environment. This paper presents the results of a regional study that was conducted to investigate the importance of communication skills in the workplace.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of the study was to determine the importance of communication skills needed by college graduates during their first five years of employment. The researchers sought answers to the following questions:

1. What is the importance of specific written communication skills?

2. What is the importance of specific oral communication skills?

3. What is the importance of specific business research skills?

4. What is the importance of other communication skills?

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The population of the study and the survey instrument are described in this section.

The Population

The population consisted of employers in the Shreveport-Bossier City, Louisiana, area who had hired Louisiana State University in Shreveport College of Business students as interns during the past five years. These employers included a variety of business types and sizes. All elements of the population were sampled, resulting in a sample size of 135 organizations. Returned surveys totaled 74, yielding a 55 percent response rate.

The Instrument

The instrument was a one-page questionnaire that listed 28 communication skills. The subjects were asked to indicate the importance of these skills on a three-point scale: Not Important, Somewhat Important, and Very Important. The response choices were limited to encourage quick, easy response.

The subjects received the questionnaires and the explanatory cover letter in the mail in early February 1993 and were asked to return the surveys within two weeks. Some completed questionnaires were returned to the researchers within three days of mailing, and approximately 25 percent were returned within one week.

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR COURSE CONTENT

The findings of the study will be discussed in terms of the skills rated as Very Important and Not Important, for these responses seem to have the most obvious implications. For purposes of this paper, the researchers viewed a skill as Very Important if at least three-fourths of the respondents rated it as such. A skill was considered as Not Important if at least one-fourth of the respondents rated it that way.

Included in this discussion are the implications for course content and teaching strategies as they relate to the specific findings presented.

Written Communication Skills

Twelve written communication skills were listed in the survey. Three were viewed as being Very Important:

Skill	Percent of Respondents
Presenting ideas clearly and concisely	96%
Using correct grammar	93%
Writing business letters	84%

Two skills were viewed as being Not Important:

Writing formal reports (over 10 pages)	35%
Using E-mail	28%

The other seven skills that did not fall in the three-fourths or one-fourth categories included writing memos, short reports, proposals, and instructions.

Five implications for course content and teaching strategies were drawn from these findings:

1. Clear, concise expression of ideas should continue to serve as the foundation for the business communication course.

2. Grammar should be given considerable attention. Although it is hoped that students are reviewing grammar in their English composition courses, the business communication course should also include grammar exercises.

3. Business letters should be heavily emphasized.

4. The long, formal report can be de-emphasized, with emphasis placed on shorter reports.

5. The creation and use of E-mail simulations is not essential at this time. However, an aspect of E-mail should be considered: Large companies are more likely to use E-mail than are small companies. The majority of companies in this survey were not large companies; therefore, the findings reflect this fact.

Oral Communication Skills

Ten oral communication skills were listed; five were viewed as being Very Important:

Skill	Percent of Respondents
Presenting ideas clearly and concisely	93%
Listening to others' ideas and instructions	92%
Using correct grammar	85%
Speaking on the telephone	82%
Asking appropriate questions	78%

Only one skill was viewed as Not Important:

Giving speeches to large groups (50+ people)	39%

The oral communication skills that did not fall into the Very Important or Not Important categories included conducting and participating in business meetings, giving presentations to small groups (5-15 people), and giving oral instructions to co-workers.

Five implications for course content and teaching were drawn from these findings. Worth noting is the idea that not all important oral communication skills can be developed in the basic business communication course; an additional course might include these skills.

1. Once again, clear and concise expression of ideas must be emphasized.

2. Listening skill development should be included.

3. Correct spoken grammar needs to be stressed. This emphasis should occur not only when students give presentations, but also when they speak during class discussions and when they talk individually with the professor.

4. Some activities involving telephone use, including instructor feedback, should be used.

5. Discussion and practice of questioning techniques need to be included. These techniques should cover not only the asking of questions during presentations, but also questioning one's boss and co-workers.

Business Research Skills

Three business research skills were listed in the survey: Constructing questionnaires; Using the public or university library to obtain information; and Conducting research using internal company data files.

None of these three research skills were viewed as Very Important. However, 27 percent of the respondents stated that constructing questionnaires was Not Important.

Two implications for course content and teaching were drawn from these findings:

1. In the basic business communication course, little emphasis needs to be placed on business research skills, if the course is focused on what students need to know in order to be successful during their first five years of employment. However, if the basic course is viewed as a foundation course for other business courses, then perhaps library research might be included.

2. If a course devoted exclusively to report writing is taught, that course would probably put emphasis on business research.

Other Communication Skills

Three items on the survey were classified as "Other Communication Skills." Two of these skills were viewed as Very Important:

Skill	Percent of Respondents
Taking constructive criticism	92%
Giving constructive criticism	82%

The skill that was not viewed as either Very Important or Not Important was understanding nonverbal communication.

An implication of these findings for course content is that teaching students how to take and give constructive criticism is probably beyond the scope of the basic business communication course. However, these skills should be included in an advanced course, such as a senior-level managerial communication class.

CONCLUSIONS

The data resulting from this study of the communication skills needed for employee success during the first five years of employment provide current information about the importance of specific communication skills. These findings will give business communication professors additional evidence concerning the value of their courses. In addition, the information can assist

educators as they review course content to ensure its relevance and timeliness.

The most important communication skill that should be developed and emphasized is the clear and concise presentation of ideas, in both writing and speaking. In addition, the use of correct grammar in both written and oral communication must also be stressed. This study revealed that letter writing is very important; but long, formal reports are not important. Furthermore, effective listening is a very important skill that should be emphasized. Finally, the researchers concluded that students need more than one business communication course to develop the skills that employers indicate are needed for success in the workplace.

TWO BUSINESS ADVISORY BOARDS USING GDSS DETERMINE COMMUNICATION IS THE NUMBER ONE NEED OF BUSINESS GRADUATES

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ABSTRACT

Group Decision Support Systems were used to determine what was important for inclusion in the undergraduate curriculum by business advisory councils at the University of Georgia and the University of Mississippi. The results were similar with communications being rated the most important need by both business advisory councils.

BACKGROUND

Group Decision Support Systems (GDSS) are a relatively new form of group decision making. The following meetings of two Business Advisory Boards took advantage of this new technology to rank what is important for MIS graduates to know and what is important for business graduates to know.

Professional lives are spent in meetings. Typically it has been found that these meetings are ineffective due to only one person being able to speak at a time, minutes not being complete (or no minutes at all), and no fast way to evaluate ideas (Nunamaker, Applegate, & Konsynski, 1987; Van DeVen, & Delbecq, 1974). GDSS computer-based system assists a group with communicating, decision making, negotiating, and other work (Dennis, et al., 1988; DeSanctis & Gallupe, 1987). GDSSs have been shown to enhance group creativity (Nunamaker, et al., 1987), negotiations (Jarke, 1986), and collaborative work (Stefik, et al., 1987). In addition, GDSSs have been shown to decrease meeting times by up to 56 percent (Nunamaker, et al., 1989) while increasing group effectiveness and satisfaction (Easton, et al., 1990; Ellis, et al., 1991).

The computers are networked to a server which is a combination of programs including: a brainstorm program, an idea consolidator, and a voting program. The server is controlled by a meeting facilitator.

METHODOLOGY

During April, 1988, at the University of Georgia, the MIS Industry Advisory Board had a meeting to rank the skills that new MIS graduates should have (Watson, Young, Miranda, Robichaux, Seerley, 1990). On March 27, 1992, The University of Mississippi, Business Advisory Council had a meeting to rank the skills business school graduates should have. Although the University of Georgia group was only concerned with MIS graduates, and the University of Mississippi group was concerned with business graduates in general; a comparison of results has proven to be interesting.

Both groups used a Group Decision Support System to generate the rankings. The University of Georgia group consisted of 20 senior level executives, and the University of Mississippi group consisted of 16 senior level executives. The University of Georgia group ranked three different positions: programmers, systems analysts, and end-user support personnel. For the current comparison, the end-user support personnel from the University of Georgia will be compared to the business student from the University of Mississippi, as these are similar general positions.

	UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA		UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI
1.	Business communication & interpersonal skills	1.	Communication--verbal and written
2.	Business knowledge and skills (accounting, marketing)	2.	Internships
3.	PC packages	3.	Organizational Behavior
4.	Problem Solving	4.	Problem Solving
5.	Fourth Generation Languages	5.	Math and Statistics
6.	Systems Analysis and Design	6.	Technology
7.	Decision Support Systems	7.	Ethical
8.	Data Base Concepts/Data Structures	8.	Computer Applications
9.	Application Programming Languages	9.	Engineering Concepts
10.	Documentation Skills	10.	Functional business skills
11.	Expert Systems	11.	Foreign Language

12.	Information Systems Planning Standards	12.	High Academic
13.	Management Skills	13.	Globalization
14.	Management Science Modeling	14.	Increase Exposure to Industry Leaders/ Speakers
15.	System Implementation	15.	Integrate Courses
16.	Telecommunication	16.	More TQM
17.	CASE Methodologies	17.	Regulatory Issues
18.	Mainframe	18.	Stronger Economic Background
19.	Operating Systems/JCL		
20.	Legal Aspects of Computing		

Figure 1: Rankings of Advisory Councils

COMPARISONS

Communication was ranked number one by both groups. Watson et al. (1990) cite a number of authors concerning communication. Couger and Zawacki determined that most people who hold computer positions have a high need for achievement coupled with a low need for social interaction. The low social need is offered as an explanation for poor relationships between information systems personnel and users of information systems. Couger recommends a communication skills course; and Zawacki, Scott,& Zawacki (1988) believe the curriculum should include group dynamics, negotiation skills, and conflict resolution. Business Communication has been identified as an essential skill in many studies (Albin & Otto, 1987; Bell & Richter, 1987; Scott & Green, 1990; Martin, 1991, Ruch, 1989). Bednar and Olney (1987) found that 69 percent of recent collegiate graduates employed in Fortune 500 corporations considered interpersonal skills as mandatory, 64 percent rated oral as mandatory, and 50 percent rated written as mandatory. Both written and verbal communication were considered important by both groups. Stallard, Hunt, and Ray (1991) concluded in their study that communication skills were the most important consideration when hiring business graduates. The University of Georgia had a separate ranking for "documentation skills" which was ranked tenth. Dexter, and Mantha (1980) found executives consider generalist skills as more useful than specialist/technical skills.

The third ranking for the University of Georgia was "PC packages (spreadsheet, word processing, graphics)," and this was

ranked as sixth and eighth by the University of Mississippi group. Quoting R. H. Longyear, president of J. C. Penney, "The most successful companies in the next decade will be those that effectively use computers to communicate." (Bowman & Branchaw, 1988, p. 17). Many higher executives are relying on the new graduates to be able to utilize computers (particularly personal computers) when they are hired. A study by Stallard, Hunt, and Ray (1991) showed that 70 percent of 207 human resources managers surveyed considered application knowledge very important or important for hiring college graduates.

Both groups ranked "problem solving" as the fourth most important need. Thompson (1988) suggests corporations prefer applicants with liberal arts education because they have a broader perspective on problem solving and the ability to learn a number of positions. Critical thinking skills are going to be very important for success in the near future (Lapointe, 1986).

While the University of Mississippi group separated management skills into components, those components tended to rank high. Cheney, Hale, and Kasper (1989) found the importance of managerial and human relations skills are increasing in importance.

CONCLUSIONS

Watson et al. (1990) conclude that end-user support personnel skills include communication, interpersonal skills, business knowledge, knowledge of personal computer packages, ability to solve problems, legal issues, and a knowledge of fourth generation languages. Watson et al. (1990) propose the existing communication courses be bolstered or new courses be developed to be sure these skills are possessed upon graduation. Bennett and Olney (1986) suggest the following be included in business communication courses: oral skills, memorandum writing, grammar, listening, and report writing.

For the University of Mississippi, the Business Advisory Council also included communication, interpersonal skills, business knowledge, knowledge of personal computer packages, ability to solve problems, legal issues, but did not include fourth generation languages. However they did include math and statistics, foreign language studies, and globalization.

There is a great deal of agreement between the two councils even though they are in different states. Once again communication and the ability to communicate is of paramount importance. Expanding the amount of writing and oral presentations throughout the curriculum would help to increase these skills. "The Writing Across the Curriculum" movement is definitely necessary. Universities must be sure students do not avoid these courses or wait to take them their last semester in school. Also, schools that accept students with ACT or SAT scores which are low on verbal

may wish to devise an exit exam to be sure these students possess the skill level necessary to succeed; or require students with low ACT or SAT scores to take additional writing courses.

Beyond the course requirement suggestions, the advisory board indicated a positive reaction to using the GDSS for this type of meeting.

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PLANNING FOR TOTAL QUALITY BANKING SERVICES THROUGH ASSESSMENT OF LEADERSHIP, COMMUNICATION, AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION: A CLOSER LOOK AT A PARTIAL INTERNAL COMMUNICATION AUDIT

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ABSTRACT

This pilot research centered around a partial internal communication audit of one bank, and related communication satisfaction to employee job satisfaction and job performance. In this small organization, employees are experiencing communication and job dissatisfaction although they perceive themselves as high performers.

INTRODUCTION

The banking industry is experiencing turbulent times, with 124 bank failures in 1991 alone. To survive and prosper, banking institutions are developing total quality management programs with a customer service-satisfaction focus. According to Keith Brinksman Associates of Pittsburgh, a survey of 120 U.S. and Canadian financial institutions reveals that 69 percent of North American Banks have some form of formal quality improvement program in place (McCarthy, 1990). These initiatives are facilitated by a transformational leadership style and enforced through effective organizational communication.

PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

This research studies one bank's leadership style, communication effectiveness, and customer satisfaction index. The focus of this paper is a partial communication audit performed within the bank to demonstrate how communication satisfaction ratings relate to employee job satisfaction and employee productivity.

The Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) (Downs & Hazen, 1977) was utilized to profile how this bank's employees perceived internal communication, job satisfaction, and

productivity. The questionnaires were hand distributed by one of the researchers to each employee with a return envelope for anonymity and convenience.

COMMUNICATION SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Downs and Hazen (1977) developed the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) around forty likert-style items to obtain perceptions of employee satisfaction with various types of organizational communication. Respondents rated each item on a scale of one to seven with anchors of "1" representing very satisfied, to "7" representing very dissatisfied.

Additionally, two open-ended questions ask what types of communication changes would increase employee satisfaction and productivity. Four survey items reflected end-product variables. Two of these questions assessed employee job satisfaction and whether this satisfaction has decreased, increased, or stayed the same during the past six months. Two similar questions were used to determine employee productivity.

Reliability and validity of the CSQ for the data in hand was analyzed using Cronbach's reliability procedure. For all items in the CSQ, the alpha reliability coefficient of .98 is a sound indication that this instrument consistently measures what it purports to measure using this sample of bank employees.

Previous CSQ research confirmed an eight-factor solution of the forty items querying employee communication satisfaction (Clampitt & Girard, 1987; Crino & White, 1981; Pincus, 1986). The communication satisfaction factors are corporate perspective, personal feedback, organizational integration, relation with supervisor, communication climate, horizontal communication, media quality, and relations with subordinates.

DATA ANALYSIS

Mean scores provided ranked indices for perceptions of customer satisfaction with internal communication for the focal organization. This employee group, as a whole, indicated dissatisfaction with the following communication items:

1. Extent to which the grapevine is active in our organization.

2. Extent to which conflicts are handled appropriately through proper communication channels.

3. Extent to which the company's communication makes me identify with it or feel a vital part of it.

4. Extent to which my superiors know and understand the problems faced by subordinates.

5. Information about how my job compares with others.

6. Recognition of my efforts.

7. Extent to which the people in my organization have great ability as communicators.

8. Extent to which my supervisor is open to ideas.

9. Extent to which the amount of communication in the company is about right.

10. Extent to which the company's publications are interesting and helpful.

11. Information about how I am being judged.

12. Reports on how problems in my job are being handled.

Correlations of factors, employee job satisfaction, and employee productivity were analyzed to determine what particular areas of internal communication within the bank have the greatest impact on employee job satisfaction and employee productivity. As shown in Table 1, the strongest correlation for employee job satisfaction is "relationship with supervisor" ($r = .78$, $<.05$), explaining 61 percent of this relationship. Employee productivity is also associated with "relationship with supervisor" ($r = .80$, $<.05$), explaining 64 percent of the variance. Although not statistically significant, employee productivity correlates with "horizontal communication" ($r = .60$), with 35 percent of the variance defined.

None of the responding employees were highly satisfied with their jobs; over half (57 percent) were only somewhat satisfied, the remainder were satisfied. Forty-three percent felt that their level of satisfaction had remained the same over the past six months; of the remaining 57 percent, half felt their level of job satisfaction had gone up, the other half felt their level of job satisfaction had gone down.

When asked if the communication associated with their job could be changed in any way to make them more satisfied, one respondent stated that "vertical communication amongst management could be better, i.e., upper-level management could accept those

suggestions made concerning organizational deficiencies and how they could be implemented."

Respondents felt that their productivity was a strong point. Three-fourths graded their productivity as high or very high; the remaining twenty-five percent felt their productivity to be average or slightly higher than most. There were no responses for below average productivity. Seventy-one percent felt that their productivity had gone up within the last six months; the remainder felt their productivity had stayed the same. When asked if the communication associated with their job could be changed in any way to make them more productive, one employee wrote, "I can be more productive if everyone works together. There is not a great deal of caring for each other. Productivity comes when everyone works together as one to better the company."

DISCUSSION

The most noteworthy correlations between employee job satisfaction for this bank is in the "relation with supervisor." The standard deviation was .99 for this factor, indicating a wide range of employee perceptions of supervisor relationships. The correlation suggests that, as satisfaction increases in relationship with supervisors, there is a significant increase in employee job satisfaction. The same relationship is seen in employees relating their productivity at work with how they view their relationship with supervisors. In other words, as these workers become more satisfied with their supervisor-employee relationship, their job satisfaction and productivity increases.

These employees want a supervisor to listen and pay attention, offer guidance for solving job-related problems, remain open to ideas, and trust them. On the other hand, these employees feel that their productivity increases as their horizontal communication climate improves with a satisfactory amount of "grapevine" information; a horizontal communication with other employees that is active, accurate, and free flowing; and with a compatible work group.

Although causal implications cannot be drawn from these results, employees appear to indicate that a more effective supervisor relationship and more effective horizontal communication will boost productivity and job satisfaction for this office.

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Table 1: CORRELATIONS OF FACTORS, EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMPLOYEE PRODUCTIVITY WITH MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

	CS	PF	OI	RSUP	CC	HC	MQ	SAT	PROD
CS	1.00								
PF	.80	1.00							
OI	.60	.87	1.00						
RSUP	.21	.35	.39	1.00					
CC	.75	.93*	.63	.53	1.00				
HC	.75	.85	.39	-.20	.63	1.00			
MQ	.64	.92*	.70	.16	.82*	.89*	1.00		
SAT	-.23	.24	-.03	.78*	.30	-.17	.07	-1.00	
PROD	-.07	-.16	.27	.80*	.06	-.60	-.28	.42	1.00

Note: *Statistically significant <.05.

			MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
CS	=	CORPORATE PERSPECTIVE	2.4	.28
PF	=	PERSONAL FEEDBACK	3.3	1.56
OI	=	ORGANIZATIONAL INTEGRATION	3.0	.28
RSUP	=	RELATION WITH SUPERVISOR	2.5	.99
CC	=	COMMUNICATION CLIMATE	3.1	1.56
HC	=	HORIZONTAL COMMUNICATION	3.3	1.27
MQ	=	MEDIA QUALITY	3.1	1.27
SAT	=	JOB SATISFACTION	2.6	.55
PROD	=	EMPLOYEE PRODUCTIVITY	2.1	1.12

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